THE ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

METHODICALLY ARRANGED

FOR THE ASSISTANCE OF YOUNG PERSONS WHO STUDY THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE GRAMMATICALLY:

TO WHICH IS ADDED

A CONCISE TREATISE OF RHETORIC.

DESIGNED PARTICULARLY FOR THE USE OF

LADIES' BOARDING SCHOOLS.

BY G. NEVILLE USSHER.

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MVSEVM
BRITAN
NICVM

TO

LADY GUISE,

Of Highnam Court in the County of Gloceſter.

MADAM,

YOUR Ladyſhip's exemplary attention to the education of your riſing offſpring directed me to introduce to the public *The Elements of Engliſh Grammar* under the auſpices of your name; a name which affords me an extenſive field for panegyric. But I ſhould be ungrateful were I to give offence at the time I am acknowledging your Ladyſhip's kind condeſcenſion in patronizing this ſmall, though I hope not uſeleſs, publication.

I am, MADAM,

With the greateſt reſpect,

Your moſt obliged and moſt humble ſervant,

The AUTHOR.

THE

THE PREFACE.

AS it may be expected that some reasons should be given for the publication of this little treatise on a subject that has been successfully investigated by some of our ablest writers, the author will candidly acknowledge, that from the experience he has already had of its utility, he flatters himself it will be found better calculated for grounding youth in the knowledge of English grammar than the books which are generally used for that purpose.

The works of our ablest grammarians are allowed to be too voluminous and abstruse for the capacity of children, and more adapted to finish the scholar than to initiate and instruct the young beginner. From their works several smaller abstracts have been made for the use of schools, which, on the contrary, are upon too contracted a plan to furnish an useful knowledge of grammar, particularly to those who do not learn the ancient languages. The author has endeavoured to take the middle course between the two extremes, and to give a concise, though at the same time a comprehensive view of his subject. He has likewise rejected the mode of instruction by question and answer, with which some of our grammars are encumbered, as desultory and ill calculated for imparting a systematic knowledge of science, and which seems to succeed only in the Socratic mode of reasoning, where truth is to be deduced from the concessions of an adversary. The beauties of taste or of the imagination may indeed be displayed to advantage in a sprightly dialogue, but these ornaments are totally foreign to the purpose in a treatise of abstract science.

He is aware that the mode of initiating youth in grammar by queſtion and anſwer, is recommended by names eminent in literature. But time, which with equal eaſe overturns empires and the ſyſtems of the learned, has ſhewn that opinions and modes of thinking are ſanctified by no names however reſpectable in their day, and that experience is the ultimate criterion for judging of what is true or uſeful in ſcience. This is the tribunal to which the author appeals, the tribunal of experience, from which he demands nothing but a fair trial. Should he be diſappointed in his wiſhes of ſucceſs, he may at leaſt claim the indulgence which is due to a well meant tho' unſucceſsful attempt.

About a century ago our language was thought incapable of grammatical accuracy from the little analogy it has with the Latin and Greek, which were the only languages then ſtudied grammatically. But this miſtaken notion has been refuted by the ſucceſſive labours of the learned, who have inveſtigated its nature, remarked its peculiar idioms, and reduced it to grammatical preciſion. Although in its preſent improved ſtate we may not find in it the majeſty and force of the learned languages, yet when we take a view of its peculiar ſtructure and genius, we behold a ſyſtem regular in its parts, and perhaps equalling thoſe languages in all other reſpects. Its ſimplicity is remarkable, notwithſtanding the number of prepoſitions that encumber it; though we muſt own at the ſame time they contribute to its variety and preciſion.

As a grammatical knowledge of Engliſh is become eſſentially neceſſary in the education of ladies, it is certainly a deſirable object to render that ſtudy as eaſy and as uſeful to them as poſſible. For this reaſon, in a treatiſe of grammar intended for their uſe, all abſtract terms that could be diſpenſed with, ſhould be rejected;

rejected; all reference to the learned languages omitted; and the rules delivered in the plaineſt manner poſſible, and ſo divided, that each may not form too large an object for the comprehenſion of the young beginner: the ſtricteſt connection ſhould be obſerved; the dependance of the different parts of ſpeech on one another clearly pointed out; and the whole theory of language, as far at leaſt as it influences writing and converſation, ſhould be brought into view. Theſe are not imaginary advantages in ſuch a treatiſe, for knowledge in every ſcience depends eſſentially upon a proper and natural combination of ideas. Such are the advantages the author has propoſed to himſelf in this epitome, and if he has ſucceeded, he will think better of his performance than if it were embelliſhed with all the learning of the ſchools.

The author of this little tract has endeavoured, as far as his narrow limits would allow, to explain to his young pupil the peculiar ſtructure, and remark to him the chief features of his native language. But as he knows that rules and precepts, tho' ever ſo often inculcated, make but a ſlight and tranſient impreſſion on the minds of youth, and are ſoon forgotten, he has formed at the end of the grammar a collection of faulty expreſſions ſo connected with the grammar that the learner by referring to the rules, may correct them with the greateſt eaſe.

Theſe examples are to ſerve as leſſons of parſing to young beginners. He has found them of more ſervice than any others that could be ſubſtituted in their place, as they oblige the learner to recur more frequently for information to the more uſeful and neceſſary rules of grammar. Every example is marked with figures referring to the rule to which it belongs. When any rule merits particular attention, additional examples are added for the ſake of further illuſtration. To prevent miſtakes, the examples

amples of bad Engliſh are printed in Italics. Such obſervations as ſeem too difficult for children, and which could not well be omitted in a regular treatiſe, are thrown into the form of notes, and may be paſſed over by the young beginner.

The method which the author purſues, is to make his pupils explain every day a part of the grammar, with the examples in the leſſons of parſing belonging to it, till they have gone through the whole. They then begin with the examples alone, which they explain and correct by the rules to which the figures direct. When they can readily correct them without turning to the rules, they compoſe examples for every rule in grammar ſimilar to thoſe given; which tends to exerciſe their ingenuity, and habituate them to write their native language with eaſe and propriety. They afterwards parſe in Endfield's Speaker, or in the Rhetoric annexed to the grammar, in the ſame manner as the ſentence parſed, page 74. His pupils are obliged to learn nothing by heart but the declenſions of Subſtantives and Pronouns, and the conjugations of Verbs. The ſlaviſh method of committing a whole book to memory, which is generally done with very little aſſiſtance or improvement of the underſtanding, is totally rejected; and grammar is rendered, what it ought to be, an object and exerciſe of the intellectual faculties, which are ſtrengthened more by this perhaps, than by any other ſtudy whatſoever.

A gentleman in the Critical Review has ſo far miſtaken the author's meaning in the two laſt ſentences of the preceding paragraph in the firſt edition, as to accuſe him very gravely of condemning the practice of exerciſing the memory in youth. Upon a more attentive peruſal he would have found in thoſe very ſentences ſome parts of the grammar particularly recommended as proper to be committed to memory. In fact, the author's opinion

opinion differs but very little from what the Reviewer himſelf acknowledges, that the memory in youth ought not to be crouded nor confuſed. He wiſhes only to remove what ſeem to him the unneceſſary parts of a laborious exerciſe, which take up time that might be much better employed.

It is an obvious remark, that in the education of youth we ſhould have in view the cultivation of thoſe faculties, upon whoſe improvement depend the mental powers of man when arrived at a ſtate of maturity. It is then his underſtanding and reaſoning faculties are full blown and diſcover the good or bad effects of his education. We then ſee the bent, confirmed by age and adopted by nature, which we gave the tender plant in its infancy. Our chief care therefore ſhould be directed to form the underſtanding in youth, to call forth the faculty of reflection, which it is difficult to induce children to exerciſe, and to direct the other powers of the mind to their proper province, to a due ſubordination to this great effect.

Now, if we conſider the memory with reſpect to its operations, we may readily diſtinguiſh a memory of words and a memory of ideas. By the former we learn to repeat a great number of words, to which we ſometimes affix no clear nor connected ideas. This verbal memory is found to be equally powerful in dunces, as in perſons of the beſt underſtanding. A boy, to whom nature has refuſed ſuperior endowments, may poſſeſs this retentive faculty in an eminent degree. After half an hour's preparation he can repeat fifty or a hundred lines of Virgil or Horace with the greateſt eaſe; but if you deſire an explanation of theſe lines, if you deſire to know in what their beauty conſiſts, their connection with the remainder of the poem, and what the author intended, his anſwer will be that his maſter had explained all theſe particulars to him, but they were

too

too difficult for him to remember. The fact is, he can eaſily learn words but not ideas; and his ear is a more faithful guide to him than his underſtanding. This kind of memory, from its early expanſion in youth, is ſuppoſed by many to be a fit inſtrument for cultivating the other powers of the mind. But we diſcover the miſtake when we conſider that this retentive command over words has not the leaſt connection with a good underſtanding, that its traces are obſervable even in the brute creation, and that its exiſtence ſeems to depend entirely upon the ear. Its early appearance in life may proceed from the greater vivacity and acuteneſs of the ſenſes, which are blunted by maturer years, and in ſome degree perhaps by the control of reaſon. It is accordingly found to be more powerful in youth than in age, and therefore can not ſtand in need of all the attention that is ſuppoſed neceſſary to its improvement, though we muſt own it may be uſed to ſome advantage when made ſubſervient to the memory of ideas.

The memory of ideas is that memory which traces its way through a chain of connected truths; and which, as ſoon as it diſcovers the right path, glances like lightningthrough the different combinations of ſcience, that were once preſent to the mind. It is this faculty which is employed in reflecting, in comparing ideas, and without which genius and learning can have no exiſtence. Its improvement is but little promoted by the mechanical method of learning by heart, and ſeems to depend chiefly upon ſtrength of underſtanding. This is the faculty which we ſhould labour to cultivate, and which will amply repay all the attention beſtowed upon its improvement.

The author has been unexpectedly led into a digreſſion ſo foreign to his purpoſe, in order to explain an opinion for which he was cenſured, and which upon further conſideration he has found

found no reaſon to alter. He will however go ſo far towards an accommodation with thoſe, who differ from him, and whoſe judgment he reſpects, as to allow that many parts of grammar may be committed to memory with advantage; but he muſt again aſſert, that in teaching this ſcience we ought to rely more upon the underſtanding than is generally done. The public, to whoſe judgment individuals ought to ſubmit in whatever is to be decided by the common ſenſe of mankind, are proper judges on this occaſion; and will neceſſarily determine with impartiality.

As the figures of Rhetoric often interfere with the rules of grammar, particularly in the parſing of poetry, a very conciſe treatiſe of Rhetoric is annexed to this edition. Several examples of each figure are given, from which a better knowledge of the ſubject may be derived than from precepts alone. The knowledge of grammar is perfected by frequent parſing, which at the ſame time gives the learner an adequate idea of the import and conſtruction of every ſentence. The parſing of poetry is for this reaſon recommended to young beginners, who will be led by this eaſy method to underſtand its beauties.

The author wiſhed to inſert a few inſtructions in punctuation; but he found that whatever could be ſaid on the ſubject was of too abſtract and too general a nature to be uſeful to young beginners, and inſtead of them recommends a method which he has ſeen practiſed with ſucceſs. The pupil copies a paſſage ſelected for the purpoſe, without marking the ſtops. He then ſhuts the book, reads over what he has written till he underſtands it, and marks the ſtops to the beſt of his judgment, which he afterwards corrects by his printed original. This exerciſe, with a few verbal inſtructions, will give the young ſcholar a more ready knowledge of punctuation than he

can

can collect from directions which must necessarily be founded upon abstract reasoning. When arrived at maturer years he may consult with advantage the treatises written upon that subject.

It is recommended to the learner to pay particular attention to Ellipsis, *page* 60, *as by that figure many idiomatical phrases are easily and naturally explained, without burthening the memory with rules. The learner should also conjugate frequently either a regular or irregular verb according to the example* to choose, *given in the grammar.*

The many alterations that have been made in this second edition, will, it is hoped, be found an improvement. The author has endeavoured to make the grammatical part as concise as possible, which is an advantage to be wished for in schools.

THE

THE

ELEMENTS

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR in general, or univerſal Grammar, explains the principles which are common to all languages.

2. Engliſh Grammar accommodates thoſe general principles to the Engliſh language, and furniſhes a ſyſtem of ſuch obſervations and rules as are neceſſary for ſpeaking and writing it according to the uſage of the moſt approved writers and ſpeakers.

3. Grammar is uſually divided into four parts; Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Proſody.

4. Orthography teaches the ſpelling of words.

5, Etymology treats of the variations of words.

6. Syntax teaches how to join words in a ſentence.

7. Proſody gives rules for verſification.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

1. AS Etymology and Syntax are the chief objects of enquiry in the ſtudy of Grammar, and are cloſely connected, we ſhall confine our Obſervations to thoſe parts of Grammar; and ſhall firſt give the Etymology, and then the Rules of Syntax belonging to each claſs of words.

2. Words are generally divided into nine claſſes, commonly called parts of ſpeech, namely, the ARTICLE, the SUBSTANTIVE or NOUN, the PRONOUN, the ADJECTIVE, the VERB, the ADVERB, the PREPOSITION, the CONJUNCTION, and the INTERJECTION.

ARTICLES.

1. THERE are two Articles, *a* or *an*, and *the*. They are prefixed to Subſtantives to ſhew how far their ſignification extends.

2. *A* or *an* is called the indefinite Article, becauſe it does not determine any particular perſon or thing; as, *a child* ſignifies any child whatever; *a book*, any kind of book.

3. *The* is called the definite Article, becauſe it determines what particular perſon or thing is ſpoken of; as, *where is the book. I ſee the child.* The article *the* ſhews that ſome particular child or book is ſpoken of.

OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

4. The Articles are never ſet before the names of perſons, animals, towns, countries, or diſtricts. Ex. *Alexander's horſe was named Bucephalus.* The names *Alexander* and *Bucephalus*, have no Article before them.

5. *A* is uſed before words beginning with a Conſonant, or with *h* aſpirated; as, *a glove, a *youngſter, a hero.*

6. *An* is uſed before words beginning with a Vowel, or with *h* not aſpirated; as, *an apron, an oiſter, an hour.*

* *Y* is a conſonant when it begins a word.

All

All the words in the Engliſh language beginning with *h* not aſpirated, are, *heir*, *honeſt*, *honour*, *hoſpital*, *hour*, *humour*, and *humble*.

7. This Article is uſed before Subſtantives of the ſingular number only; as, *a city has been deſtroyed by an earthquake*. Plural Subſtantives uſed in an indefinite ſenſe have no Article before them; as, *Cities have been deſtroyed by earthquakes*.

8. This Article is often uſed inſtead of *each* or *every*; as, *he has five hundred pounds a year*, that is, *every year*.

9. This Article is placed before terms of number taken collectively, ſo as to give the idea of a whole, though the following Subſtantive be in the plural number; as, *a few fiſhes*; *a hundred pounds*.

10. The definite Article *the*, is ſet before Subſtantives both of the ſingular and plural number, becauſe we can ſpeak determinately of many as well as of one; thus, *the child*, or, *the children*.

11. This Article is prefixed to the names of ſeas, rivers, ſhips, and of ſuch countries and mountains, as are in the plural number; as, *the Atlantic*, *the Severn*, *the Royal George*, *the Alps*, *the Weſt Indias*, *&c.*

SUBSTANTIVES.

1. A Subſtantive or Noun is the name of any thing that exiſts or may exiſt; as, *ſun*, *houſe*, *virtue*, *goodneſs*.

2. A word is a Subſtantive, when it can be made the ſubject of diſcourſe; as, *I ſpeak of virtue*, *I ſpeak of goodneſs*.

3. Subſtantives are either proper or common.

4. A Subſtantive proper is a proper name; as, *John, the Severn, Gloceſter, England.*

5. Subſtantives common are the names of things in general; as, *a man, a river, a city, a kingdom.*

6. NUMBER is the diſtinction of one from many. There are two numbers, the ſingular, and plural.

7. The ſingular number ſpeaks but of one; as, *a king, a houſe, a proof.*

8. The plural number ſpeaks of more than one, and is formed by adding *s* to the ſingular; as, *kings, houſes, proofs.* [See examples of this and the following rules in par. 21.]

9. But when the ſingular ends in *o, x, ch, ſh,* or *s,* the plural is formed by adding *es*; as, *hero, heroes. Fox, foxes. Church, churches.*

10. The following Subſtantives ending in *f,* or *fe,* form their plurals irregularly by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; as, *calf, calves. Elf, elves. Half, halves. Knife, knives. Leaf, leaves. Life, lives. Loaf, loaves. Self, ſelves. Shelf, ſhelves. Thief, thieves. Wife, wives. Wolf, wolves*; *and Staff, ſtaves.*

11. Nouns ending in *y* after a conſonant, form their plural by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *Lady, ladies.* &c.

12. *Man* and all its compounds form their plurals by changing *a* into *e*; as, *man, men.*

13. The following Subſtantives form their plurals irregularly; *Child, children. Ox, oxen. Die, dice. Foot, feet. Gooſe, geeſe. Mouſe, mice. Penny, pence. Tooth, teeth. Brother makes brothers and brethren.*

14. Some Hebrew words add *im* to the ſingular to form the plural; as, *Cherub, cherubim. Seraph, ſeraphim.*

raphim. Some from the Greek change *on* into *a*; as, *Phenomenon, phenomena. Automaton, automata.*

15. A few Subſtantives derived from the Latin, form their plurals by changing *us* into *i*; as, *Genius*, (a ſpirit) *genii. Magus, magi. Radius, radii*, &c. *Genius* ſignifying a man endowed with ſuperior abilities, follows the general rule; as, *England has many geniuſes.*

16. The following Subſtantives, *deer, hoſe, ſheep, means*, and *ſail* (a ſhip) are the ſame in both numbers, as, *one ſail of the line. Twenty ſail of the line. Sail*, when uſed for the ſails of a ſhip, has a plural number; as, *the ſails were ſet. Mean* in the ſingular ſignifies *medium*; as, *Obſerve the golden mean.*

17. Some words from the nature of the things which they expreſs, or from cuſtom alone, have no ſingular number; as, *alms, amends, annals, aſhes, aſſets, bellows, bowels, clothes, calends, creſſes, entrails, goods, lungs, odds, riches, oats, ſciſſars, ſheers, ſnuffers, tongs, thanks, tidings, victuals, vitals*, and *wages.*

18. Proper names; as, *John, London*; the names of virtues, as, *generoſity*; of vices, as, *avarice*; and abſtract nouns, that is, nouns which are objects of the underſtanding, tho' not of the ſenſes; as, *prudence, bravery, baſhfulneſs, ſwiftneſs*, &c. and likewiſe bodily affections, ſuch as, *hunger, thirſt*, &c. do not admit the plural number.

19. Collective terms, ſuch as, *bread, beer, ale, honey, milk, butter, wax, beef, wheat, graſs, gold*, &c. have no plurals.

20. CASES. Though Subſtantives by their variations mark but two Caſes the Nominative and Genitive; we ſhall find it convenient to mention the Objective Caſe, particularly when we ſpeak of the Verbs.

21. Subſtan-

21. Substantives are varied as follows, to express the different Numbers and Cases.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom. and Obj.	*a King.*	Nom. and Obj.	*kings.*
Gen.	*king's* or *of a king.*	Gen.	*kings'* or *of kings.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Calf.*	Nom. and Obj.	*calves.*
G.	*a calf's* or *of a calf.*	G.	*calves'* or *of calves.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Lady.*	Nom. and Obj.	*ladies.*
G.	*a lady's* or *of a lady.*	G.	*ladies'* or *of ladies.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Man.*	Nom. and Obj.	*men.*
G.	*a man's* or *of a man.*	G.	*men's* or *of men.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Child.*	Nom and Obj.	*children.*
G.	*a child's* or *of a child.*	G.	*children's* or *of children.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Seraph.*	Nom. and Obj.	*seraphim.*
G.	*a seraph's* or *of a seraph.*	G.	*seraphim's* or *of seraphim.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Genius.*	Nom. and Obj.	*genii.*
G.	*a genius's* or *of a genius.*	G.	*genii's* or *of genii.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Genius.*	Nom. and Obj.	*geniuses.*
G.	*a genius's* or *of a genius.*	G.	*geniuses'* or *of geniuses.*
Nom. and Obj.	*a Deer.*	Nom. and Gen.	*deer.*
G.	*a deer's* or *of a deer.*	G.	*deers'* or *of deer.*

22. GENDERS. There are three Genders, the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

23. All Nouns denoting males are of the masculine gender; as, *a man, a father, a son, an uncle.*

24. All Nouns denoting females are of the feminine gender; as, *a woman, a mother, a girl, an aunt.*

25. All Nouns that signify things without life are neuter. Also Nouns denoting creatures whose sex is unknown, or has not been determined by the custom of language, may be looked upon as neuter. Ex. *a house, a stone, a bird, a mole, a worm.*

26. The

26. The ſex or gender of ſome Subſtantives is diſtinguiſhed by the addition of another Subſtantive; as, *a man-ſervant, a maid-ſervant*, &c.

27. Some Subſtantives of the maſculine gender form their feminine by the addition of *eſs*; as, *Baron, baroneſs. Count, counteſs. Heir, heireſs. Jew, jeweſs. Lion, lioneſs. Patron, patroneſs. Prior, prioreſs. Poet, poeteſs. Prophet, propheteſs. Shepherd, ſhepherdeſs. Tutor, tutoreſs. Viſcount, viſcounteſs.*

28. Other Subſtantives form their feminine by changing the laſt ſyllable of the maſculine into *eſs* or *ix*; as, *Abbot, abbeſs. Actor, actreſs. Duke, ducheſs. Elector, electreſs. Embaſſador, embaſſadreſs. Emperor, empreſs. Governor, governeſs. Hunter, huntreſs. Marquis, marchioneſs. Prince, princeſs. Adminiſtrator, adminiſtratrix. Executor, executrix.*

29. The ſex or gender of ſome Subſtantives is often diſtinguiſhed by different words; as, *Batchelor, maid. Boar, ſow. Boy, girl. Bridegroom, bride. Brother, ſiſter. Buck, doe. Bull, cow. Bullock, heifer. Cock, hen. Dog, bitch. Drake, duck. Father, mother. Friar, nun. Gander, gooſe. Horſe, mare. Huſband, wife. King, queen. Lad, laſs. Lord, lady. Man, woman. Maſter, miſtreſs. Milter, ſpawner. Nephew, niece. Ram, ewe. Sloven, ſlut, Son, daughter. Stag, hind. Uncle, aunt. Widower, widow. Wizard, witch.*

Observations and rules of syntax.

30. To expreſs the ſingular number of ſuch words as have only the plural number in uſe, we add another word; as, *I have but one pair of ſciſſars. I read one of the annals of Tacitus.*

31. Subſtan-

31. Subſtantives taken in the largeſt and moſt unlimited ſenſe do not admit the articles before them; as, *the proper ſtudy of mankind is man.* Here the Subſtantives *Mankind* and *Man* are uſed in the largeſt ſenſe, and therefore have no articles before them.

32. Proper names, when uſed in a figurative ſenſe, or by way of diſtinction, admit the plural number; as, *there are but few Mecenaſes.* They likewiſe admit the articles before them; as, *the Cæſars were the twelve firſt emperors of Rome.*

33. When a name conſiſts of more terms than one, the genitive ſingular, and the nominative plural are formed by ſubjoining the *s* to the laſt of the terms; as, *his brother John's wife; the two Doctor Smiths.*

34. The genitive *s* is ſometimes not added to a Subſtantive in the ſingular number ending in *ſs*, but the comma, as in the genitive plural, ſupplies its place; as, *for righteouſneſs' ſake.*

35. A Noun of multitude is a word comprehending many individuals. Ex. *Army, ſociety.* &c. When theſe words are conſtantly uſed in the moſt extenſive ſenſe, they have no plural number; as, *clergy, laity,* &c.

36. Subſtantives formed by joining two Subſtantives into one, are called Compound Subſtantives; ſuch are, *ſeaman, footman,* &c. A Hyphen is ſometimes placed between Subſtantives thus joined; as, *ſea-fiſh, a ſilver-tankard,* &c. and it is ſometimes omitted, particularly when one of the Subſtantives is a proper name; as, *a Mancheſter cotton.*

OF

PRONOUNS.

1. A PRONOUN is a word uſed inſtead of a Noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the Noun.

2. Pronouns are either Subſtantives or Adjectives. The Pronoun Subſtantives are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *ſhe*, *it*, *aught*, *ſelf*, *one*, *who*, *whoever*, and *whoſoever*. The Pronoun Adjectives are, *which*, *whichever*, *whichſoever*, *what*, *whatever*, *whatſoever*, *this*, *that*, *other*, *any*, *none*, *ſome*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *own*, *ſuch*, and *ſame*.

3. Such of the pronouns as vary in their terminations are declined as follows;

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	*I.*	Nom.	*we.*
Gen.	*my* or *mine.*	Gen.	*our* or *ours.*
Obj.	*me.*	Obj.	*us.*
Nom.	*Thou.*	Nom.	*ye* or *you.*
Gen.	*thy* or *thine.*	Gen.	*your* or *yours.*
Obj.	*thee.*	Obj.	*you.*
Nom.	*He.*	Nom.	*they.*
Gen.	*his.*	Gen.	*their* or *theirs.*
Obj.	*him.*	Obj.	*them.*
Nom.	*She.*	Nom.	*they.*
Gen.	*her* or *hers.*	Gen.	*their* or *theirs.*
Obj.	*her.*	Obj.	*them.*
Nom.	*It.*	Nom.	*they.*
Gen.	*its.*	Gen.	*their* or *theirs.*
Obj.	*it.*	Obj.	*them.*
Nom. and Obj.	*One.*	Nom. and Obj.	*ones.*
Gen.	*one's* or *of one.*	Gen.	*ones'* or *of ones.*
Nom. and Obj.	*Another.*	N. and O.	*other* or *others.*
G.	*another's* or *of another.*	Gen.	*others'* or *of others.*

Nom.

Nom. and Obj.	*Self.*	Nom. and Obj.	*ſelves.*
Nom. and Obj.	*This.*	Nom. and Obj.	*theſe.*
Nom. and Obj.	*That.*	Nom. and Obj.	*thoſe.*

Singular and Plural.

Nom.	*Who,*	Gen.	*Whoſe,*	Obj.	*Whom,*
	Whoever,		*Whoſever,*		*Whomever,*
	Whoſoever,		*Whoſeſoever,*		*Whomſoever,*
	Which,		*Whoſe,*		*Which.*

OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

4. The pronouns *I, thou, he, ſhe,* and *it,* are called perſonal pronouns, becauſe they repreſent the three perſons uſed in converſation or writing. *I* repreſents the firſt perſon or ſpeaker; *thou* the ſecond perſon or perſon ſpoken to; and *he* or *ſhe* the third perſon or perſon ſpoken of. *It* is called a perſonal pronoun becauſe it repreſents Subſtantives, which are always ſpoken of in the third perſon. Perſonal pronouns never admit the articles before them.

5. The firſt and ſecond perſonal pronouns mark no diſtinction of gender; but the third perſonal pronoun diſtinguiſhes the three genders; *he* the maſculine, *ſhe* the feminine, and *it* the neuter. *It* is neuter, becauſe it agrees with Subſtantives of the neuter gender.

6. When a pronoun or Subſtantive is in the genitive caſe it expreſſes property or poſſeſſion, and always precedes the Subſtantive governing it; as, *my land*; *John's houſe. My* and *John's* are genitive caſes preceding the Subſtantives *land* and *houſe.*

7. The genitive caſes of the Perſonal Pronouns are ſometimes called Poſſeſſive Pronouns, and are then looked upon as Pronoun Adjectives. In either view they equally expreſs property or poſſeſſion.

8. When

8. When theſe genitive caſes have a double form, they are differently applied. *My*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, and *their*, are uſed when the Subſtantives are expreſſed; as, *my houſe*, *thy land*, &c. and *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are uſed when the Subſtantive is underſtood; as, *this is mine*; *that is thine*, &c.

9. *Mine* and *thine* are often uſed in poetry, inſtead of *my* and *thy*, and ſometimes in proſe before a vowel; as, *by the greatneſs of thine arm*.

10. We uſe the plural *you*, inſtead of the ſingular *thou*, when we ſpeak to a ſingle perſon; as, *my friend*, *I am ready to ſerve you*. In poetry however, and when we addreſs the Divine Being, we generally uſe *thou*.

11. Pronouns from their nature may be Relatives, that is, they may relate to ſome perſon or thing expreſſed or underſtood in the former part of the ſentence, which is called the Antecedent; as, *I ſaw the gentleman who was at the play*. *Gentleman* is the Antecedent, and *who* is the Relative agreeing with it. *What did you ſee?* *What* is a Relative agreeing with its Antecedent *thing* underſtood.

12. The Perſonal Pronouns often ſerve as Antecedents in a ſentence, and have other Pronouns as Relatives agreeing with them; thus, *he who obeys not the laws*. *He* is the Antecedent, and *who* is a relative agreeing with it.

13. The Relative agrees with its Antecedent in number, perſon, and gender.

14. Firſt in number; as, *when ſoldiers are ordered they muſt obey*: the Relative *they* is in the plural number, agreeing with its Antecedent *ſoldiers*. *Mathuſalem lived* 960 *years, and he died*: the Relative *he*

is

is in the ſingular number, agreeing with its Antecedent *Mathuſalem*.

15. Again, *the King and Queen put on their robes.* The genitive caſe *their* is in the plural number, agreeing with its two Antecedents *King* and *Queen*. It is therefore improper to ſay, *doſt thou not perceive that all will be yours. Yours* ought to be *thine* to agree with its Antecedent *thou* in the ſingular number.

16. Secondly, the Relative agrees with its Antecedent in perſon; as, *I who am: who* is in the firſt perſon, agreeing with its Antecedent *I. Thou who art idle: who* is in the ſecond perſon, agreeing with its Antecedent *thou. He that calls me:* the Relative *that* is the third perſon, agreeing with its Antecedent *he.*

17. If a Relative agrees with Antecedents of different perſons, it ſhould agree with the firſt perſon in preference to the ſecond and third, and with the ſecond in preference to the third; as, *you and I have our objections to it. Our* is the firſt perſon agreeing with the firſt perſon *I* in preference to the ſecond perſon *you.*

18. Thirdly, the Relative agrees with its Antecedent in gender; as, *a man called upon me, and he told me:* the Relative *he* agrees in gender with its Antecedent *man. A woman fell ill yeſterday, and ſhe died to-day: ſhe* agrees in gender with its Antecedent *woman. My book fell into the fire, and it was burnt: it* agrees in gender, with its Antecedent *book.*

19. The neuter pronoun *it* is likewiſe employed to expreſs the ſubject of any diſcourſe or ſentence; as, *you have been ill, and I knew nothing of it.* Here *it* refers

refers to the phraſe, *you have been ill*; which on this occaſion is its Antecedent.

20. *It* is often uſed for the ſtate or condition of perſons or things. Ex. *how is it with you?*

21. *It* ſometimes refers to a Subſtantive which is underſtood, and which can be known only by the meaning of the ſentence; as, *It is hot*, that is, *the weather is hot*.

22. The Pronoun *ſelf* is joined to the Perſonal Pronouns forming in the ſingular number the compound pronouns, *myſelf, thyſelf, yourſelf, himſelf, herſelf, itſelf*; and in the plural *ourſelves, yourſelves, themſelves*. *Ourſelf* is uſed only in the regal ſtile.

23. Theſe Compound Pronouns are frequently added to Perſonal Pronouns, and proper names when uſed emphatically; thus, *you yourſelves know it*. On theſe occaſions they ſometimes ſtand at a diſtance from the Pronoun or Subſtantive; as, *I heard it myſelf*.

24. *Who* refers to perſons, and *which* to things and irrational creatures; as, *I love the friend who has done me a kindneſs, though ſhe be guilty of faults which I diſlike*. *Who* refers to *friend*, and *which* to *faults*.

25. But when a queſtion is aſked, *which* is to be uſed both for perſons and things; as, *which man do you think the talleſt? Which houſe do you like the beſt?*

26. *This* is always uſed with Subſtantives in the ſingular number, and *theſe* with Subſtantives in the plural; as, *this houſe, theſe houſes*. When *that* points out a perſon or thing it alſo has the plural number; as, *that man; thoſe houſes*.

27. When *this* and *that* are applied in the ſame ſentence to different Antecedents, *that* refers to the firſt and *this* to the laſt Antecedent; as, *chooſe wiſdom rather*

than folly; that will make thee honourable, but this contemptible. Here *that* refers to *wiſdom* and *this* to *folly.*

28. A Perſonal Pronoun is ſometimes uſed improperly inſtead of the Plural Pronoun *thoſe.* Ex. *give me them books; obſerve them three perſons*; ought to be, *give me thoſe books; obſerve thoſe three perſons.*

29. *That* is often uſed as a Relative inſtead of *who* and *which,* and is the ſame in both numbers; as, *have you ſeen the man that (or who) called. The books that (or which) you require are loſt*; but it is more properly applied to things than to perſons, except on the following occaſions:

30. Firſt, *that* is more proper than *who* or *which,* after an Adjective in the ſuperlative degree; as, *he was the ableſt miniſter that James ever had.*

31. Secondly, *that* is more proper than *who* or *which* after *ſame* and *who*; as, *he is the ſame man that you ſaw before. Who, that has any ſenſe, could argue thus.*

32. Thirdly, *that* is more proper than *who* or *which* when it ſerves as a relative to two antecedents, the one a perſon, the other a thing; as, *have you ſeen the man and horſe that I met.*

33. *What* ſometimes includes both the Antecedent *that* and its Relative *which*; thus, *you may take which you like*; or, *you may take that which you like.*

34. When *other* agrees with Subſtantives in the plural number, *other* is uſed when the Subſtantive is expreſſed, and *others* when it is underſtood; as, *envy not others their riches*; or, *envy not other people their riches.*

35. *Either* ſignifies only the one or the other of two things taken ſeparately; as, *will you have either of theſe two books.* Inſtead therefore of ſaying, *he may*

have

have any of my two horſes, we ought to ſay, *he may have either of my two horſes.*

36. *Each* ſignifies two or a greater number taken ſeparately; as, *I met two men, and I gave to each a ſhilling.* The following ſentences are faulty: *The two Kings ſat either of them on his throne. Nadab and Abihu took either of them his cenſor.* *Either* in both places ought to be *each.*

37. *Each other* ought to be uſed when we ſpeak of only two perſons or things; as, *the two men ſtruck each other.* It is therefore improper to ſay, *two men ignorant of one another's language.* We ſhould ſay, *two men ignorant of each other's language.*

38. *One another* is uſed when ſeveral perſons or things are ſpoken of; as, *four men were talking to one another.* The following ſentence is improper; *ſeveral governments rivals of each other.* We ſhould ſay, *ſeveral governments rivals of one another.*

39. *Every* may agree with a plural Noun conveying a collective idea; as, *every twelve years.*

40. When ſeveral Relatives agree with the ſame Antecedent, they ſhould be the ſame. The following ſentence is faulty; *the man that came laſt week, and who was ſick, went away this morning:* the Relatives *that* and *who*, as they refer to the ſame perſon, ought to be expreſſed by the ſame Pronoun; as, *the man, who came here laſt week, and who was ſick, went away this morning*; or, &c.

41. The Relative ought to point out clearly its Antecedent. The following ſentence is faulty; *men look with an evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think that their reputation obſcures them.* Here is a confuſion ariſing from *them* and *their* referring to different Antecedents. The phraſe is better thus; *men look with an*

evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think that the reputation of ſuch as are good obſcures their own.

ADJECTIVES.

1. AN Adjective is a word joined to a Subſtantive to expreſs ſome quality or circumſtance belonging to it; as, *a good girl*; *a round table*; *five books*. *Good*, *round*, and *five*, are Adjectives joined to the Subſtantives *girl*, *table*, and *books*.

2. Adjectives admit three degrees of compariſon; the poſitive, the comparative, and the ſuperlative.

3. The poſitive mentions the Adjective without any increaſe or diminution; as, *ſtrong*, *wiſe*.

4. The comparative ſomewhat increaſes or decreaſes the poſitive; and is formed by adding *r* or *er* to the poſitive, or by ſetting before it the Adverb *more*; as, *ſtronger*, or *more ſtronger*; *wiſer*, or *more wiſe*.

5. The ſuperlative increaſes or diminiſhes the poſitive to the higheſt degree; and is formed by adding *ſt* or *eſt* to the poſitive, or by prefixing to it the Adverb *moſt*; as, *ſtrongeſt*, or *moſt ſtrong*; *wiſeſt*, or *moſt wiſe*.

EXAMPLES.

Poſitive.	Comparative	Superlative.
Wiſe,	*wiſer* or *more wiſe*,	*wiſeſt* or *moſt wiſe*.
High,	*higher* or *more high*,	*higheſt* or *moſt high*.
Long,	*longer* or *more long*,	*longeſt* or *moſt long*.
Kind,	*kinder* or *more kind*,	*kindeſt* or *moſt kind*.

6. Adjectives that end in *y*, change the *y* into *i* when their termination alters; as

Dry,	*drier* or *more dry*,	*drieſt* or *moſt dry*.
Happy,	*happier* or *more happy*,	*happieſt* or *moſt happy*.
Lovely,	*lovelier* or *more lovely*,	*lovelieſt* or *moſt lovely*.
Pretty,	*prettier* or *more pretty*,	*prettieſt* or *moſt pretty*.

7. Adjectives

7. Adjectives, conſiſting of more ſyllables than one, are generally compared by *more* and *moſt* only; as,

Sparing,	*more ſparing,*	*moſt ſparing.*
Splendid,	*more ſplendid,*	*moſt ſplendid.*
Diligent,	*more diligent,*	*moſt diligent.*
Beautiful,	*more beautiful,*	*moſt beautiful.*

8. The following Adjectives are compared irregularly, and ſome of them are peculiar in not admitting the mode of compariſon by *more* and *moſt*:

Good,	*better,*	*beſt.*
Bad, ill, evil,	*worſe,*	*worſt.*
Little,	*leſſer** or *leſs,*	*leaſt.*
Much, many,	*more,*	*moſt.*
Near,	*nearer,*	*neareſt* or *next.*
Late,	*later* or *latter,*	*lateſt* or *laſt.*
Far,	*farther,*	*fartheſt.*

Latter and *laſt* refer either to time or place: *later* and *lateſt* to time only.

9. Some Adjectives relating to place and ſituation have only the ſuperlative degree, which is formed by adding *moſt* to the poſitive, as poſitive *fore*; ſuperlative *foremoſt*; *hinder*, *hindermoſt*; *nether*, *nethermoſt*; *under*, *undermoſt*; *upper*, *uppermoſt*; and *utter*, *uttermoſt*, or *utmoſt*.

Observations and rules of syntax.

10. Every Adjective agrees with ſome Subſtantive, before which it generally ſtands; as, *a large garden*; *large* is an Adjective agreeing with the Subſtantive *garden*. The Subſtantive is ſometimes underſtood; as, *many were found unworthy*; *many* and *unworthy* are Adjectives, agreeing with the Subſtantive *perſons* underſtood.

* *Leſſer* has been ſo frequently uſed by our beſt writers, that Grammarians can hardly venture to condemn the uſe of it, particularly in poetry.

11. But the Adjective, when it is followed by a clauſe depending upon it, is to be placed after the Subſtantive; as, *I have taken a houſe large enough for my purpoſe.* The Adjective *large* follows the Subſtantive *houſe*, with which it agrees.

12. The Adjective likewiſe, if it be an epithet of honour, as, *Alexander the Great*; if an Adjective of order, as, *George the Third*; if it expreſs dimenſion, as, *a wall 20 feet high*; or if harmony require it, as, *ye powers divine*; may be placed after the Subſtantive.

13. *One*, when it expreſſes number, as, *I have but one book*, is an Adjective: but when taken in an unlimited or general ſenſe, as, *one is apt to think ſo*, it is a Pronoun Subſtantive. It is declined only when a Pronoun.

14. Adjectives of number are frequently converted into Subſtantives, and as ſuch admit the plural number, or have an Article or an Adjective before them; as, *a million of men. Many hundreds of pounds.*

15. Adjectives with the definite article before them, often become Subſtantives; as, *the beautiful and ſublime pleaſe univerſally.* Here *beautiful* and *ſublime* are Adjectives uſed as Subſtantives. Such Subſtantives often have Adjectives joined to them; as, *the virtuous few.*

16. When an Adjective is joined to a Subſtantive, the Article is generally placed before the Adjective; as, *an excellent Sermon. The new book.*

17. But the Adjectives *ſuch* and *many*, when joined to Subſtantives in the ſingular number, and ſuch Adjectives as follow the words, *as*, *ſo*, *too*, and *how*, have the articles placed after them; as, *ſuch a gift*; *many a man*; *ſo great a labour*; *too ſmall a reward*; *how fine the proſpect is!* The Adjective *all* has the article after it; as, *all the men.*

18. The

18. The comparative degree contains two diſtinct terms, which ought to be connected by the conjunction *than*; as, *Socrates was wiſer than his judges*. *Socrates* and *his judges*, between whom the compariſon is made, were diſtinct perſons.

19. The following ſentence is therefore faulty; *of all the books here, mine has loſt fewer leaves*. The comparative *fewer* is here conſtrued with *of* inſtead of *than*. The ſentence ought to be; *my book has loſt fewer leaves than any book here*.

20. In the Superlative degree the firſt term ought to be contained in the ſecond, which muſt be either a Noun of Multitude or in the plural number; and the two terms are connected by the prepoſition *of*; as, *Socrates was the wiſeſt man of his nation*. Here the firſt term *Socrates* is contained in the ſecond term *his nation*, which is a Noun of multitude.

21. The following ſentence is therefore incorrect; *my book has the feweſt leaves torn of any other book here*. In this ſentence the firſt term *my book* is not contained in the ſecond term *any other book*. It ſhould be thus altered; *my book has the feweſt leaves torn of all the books here*; or, *of all the books here, mine has the feweſt leaves torn*.*

* Theſe obſervations will enable us to account for the poet's miſtake, where he uſes the ſuperlative degree without obſerving that the firſt term ought always to be contained in the ſecond. If we judge ſtrictly by our rule, Adam, in the following lines, muſt be ſuppoſed one of his own ſons, and Eve one of her own daughters. See Spectator, No. 285.

"*Adam, the goodlieſt man of men ſince born,*
"*His ſons, the faireſt of her daughters, Eve.*"

A ſimilar obſervation has been made on the paſſage in the Emperor Julian's works, where he introduces Trajan ſaying: "*Of all the Emperors* "*who preceded me, I was the mildeſt to my ſubjects.*"

22. The

22. The impropriety of the ſingular number after Adjectives in the ſuperlative degree would be more apparent were we to ſay, *the beſt of any man*, inſtead of, *the beſt of men*; or, *the wiſeſt of any being*, for, *the wiſeſt of beings*.

23. There is likewiſe an impropriety in the word *other*, which can never be uſed in the ſecond term of the ſuperlative degree, becauſe it cannot poſſibly contain the firſt. We may ſay in the comparative, *he is richer than the other*, or, *than the others*; but we cannot ſay, *he is the richeſt of the other*, or, *of the others*.

24. The following ſentences; *this vice enters deepeſt into the ſoul of any other. This remedy may prove the ſureſt of any other*; ſhould be thus altered; *of all vices this enters the deepeſt into the ſoul. Of all remedies this may prove the ſureſt*.

25. The only occaſion when *of* may follow the comparative degree is in ſuch ſentences as the following, in which the Adjective may very properly be either in the comparative or ſuperlative degree, as the laſt term contains the firſt; thus, *he is the taller of the two*, or, *he is the talleſt of the two*.

26. A double comparative or a double ſuperlative is very improper; as, *he is a more wiſer man than you*, ought to be, *he is a more wiſe man than you*, or, *he is a wiſer man than you. It was the moſt ſtrangeſt thing I ever ſaw*, ought to be, *it was the moſt ſtrange thing, I ever ſaw*, or, *it was the ſtrangeſt thing I ever ſaw*.

27. Adjectives of numbers, and all Adjectives, whoſe ſignification cannot be encreaſed, are never compared; ſuch as, *extreme, univerſal, perfect, chief, right, immortal, eternal*, &c. Ex. *Taſte when brought to its moſt perfect ſtate*; ought to be, *taſte when brought to its perfect ſtate*; or, *to its moſt-improved ſtate*.

VERBS.

VERBS.

1. A VERB ſignifies to be; to act; or to be acted upon; and is known by its readily agreeing with the perſonal Pronouns; as, *I ſleep, he ſleeps.*

2. There are three kinds of Verbs; Active, Paſſive, and Neuter.

3. A Verb Active, or as it is ſometimes called a Verb Tranſitive, expreſſes the manner in which a perſon or thing called the agent affects another perſon or thing called the object; as, *John ſtruck William. John* is the agent or perſon that acted; *ſtruck* is the Verb Active; and *William* is the object.

4. A Verb Paſſive denotes the manner in which an object is acted upon or affected by an agent; as, *William was ſtruck by John. William* is the object; *was ſtruck* is the Paſſive Verb; and *John* is the agent.

5. A Verb Neuter denotes being or exiſting, as, *I am*; or the being in ſome poſture, ſituation, or circumſtance; as, *I ſit*; *I ſtand*; *I lie.*

6. Verbs are varied through Moods, Tenſes, and Participles. This variation is called the Conjugation of a Verb.

7. There are five Moods; the Indicative, Imperative, Potential, Subjunctive, and Infinitive.

8. The Indicative Mood ſimply declares or affirms a thing; as, *I chooſe*; *I have choſen.*

9. The Imperative Mood commands, entreats, exhorts, or permits; as, *chooſe*; *let us chooſe.*

10. The Potential Mood is known by the auxiliaries *may, can, muſt, might, could, ſhould,* and *would*; as, *he may chooſe*; *I might chooſe.*

11. The

11. The Subjunctive Mood is known by its being conditional; as, *whether he chooſe this or that.*

12. The Infinitive Mood is known by its having the ſign *to* before it; as, *to chooſe; to have choſen.* It has neither number, nor perſon, nor nominative caſe.

13. There are five Tenſes or Times; the Preſent, Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future.

14. The Preſent Tenſe ſpeaks of preſent time; as, *I chooſe; he chooſes.*

15. The Imperfect Tenſe ſpeaks of time that paſſed whilſt ſomething was doing; as, *I called,* or *did call, whilſt you were at work:* or of time perfectly paſt; as, *Alexander conquered the Perſians.*

16. The Perfect Tenſe ſuppoſes the action compleatly finiſhed in a time that is not perfectly paſſed; as, *I have called on you twice,* that is, *this week,* or *this day.*

17. The Pluperfect Tenſe ſpeaks of a time that paſſed before another paſſed time; as, *when he had choſen what he wanted, he departed.*

18. The Future Tenſe ſpeaks of time to come; as, *I ſhall* or *will chooſe to-morrow.*

19. The ſecond Future Tenſe repreſents a future action as completely finiſhed before a certain future time. Ex. *I ſhall have read my book before you go.* In this Tenſe the Participle is often at a diſtance from its auxiliary; as, *I ſhall have my book read before you go.*

20. There are three Participles, the preſent, the Perfect, and the Paſſed.

21. The Preſent Participle denotes the continuance of action; as, *calling, chooſing.*

22. The Perfect Participle, ſometimes called the Paſſive Participle, repreſents the action complete and finiſhed; as, *called; choſen.*

23. The

23. The Paſſed Participle marks the action as finiſhed in a time lately paſſed; as, *having called*; *having choſen*.

24. In conjugating Verbs we muſt obſerve, that when the Verb ends in a conſonant (except *x* and *w*) preceded by a ſingle vowel on which the accent is placed, the laſt conſonant is doubled when a ſyllable is added to the Verb; as, *forget*, *forgetteth*, *forgetting*.

25. When the Verb ends in *y* after a conſonant, the *y* is to be changed into *i* when the termination alters, except in the Preſent Participle; as, *to cry*, *cries*, *crieth*, *cried*. Preſent Participle, *crying*.

26. When the Verb ends in *e*, the *e* is to be omitted in the preſent Participle; as, *love*, *loving*. From this rule are excepted the Verbs *to ſinge* and *to ſwinge*, which retain the *e*; as, *ſingeing*, *ſwingeing*, that their Participles may be diſtinguiſhed from *ſinging* and *ſwinging*, the Participles of the Verbs *to ſing* and *to ſwing*.

27. When the Verb ends in *ie*, the *i* is to be changed into *y* in the Preſent Participle; as, *die*, *dying*, &c.

28. The conjugation of Verbs is repreſented in an abridged form, conſiſting of the firſt perſons of the Preſent and Imperfect Tenſes of the Indicative Mood and the Perfect Participle; as, *love*, *loved*, *loved*. *Write*, *wrote*, *written*. This may be called the abridged conjugation of a Verb, becauſe it directs us in the formation of all the Moods and Tenſes, and determines the nature of the Verb.

29. AUXILIARY VERBS. Auxiliary Verbs are ſo called becauſe they aſſiſt in conjugating Verbs. The chief Auxiliaries are *to have* and *to be*, which are complete Verbs. The other Auxiliaries are, *do*, *ſhall*, *will*, *can*, *muſt*, *may*, and *let*, which are Defective Verbs, that is, want ſome of their Moods and Tenſes: They may be

ſeen

ſeen in the liſt of Irregular Verbs. The Verb *to be* is conjugated in the definite Conjugation. The Verb *to have* is conjugated as follows:

Have. *Had.* *Had.*

INDICATIVE MOOD. Preſ. Tenſe.

Singular.	Plural.
I have.	*We have.*
Thou haſt.	*Ye* or *you have.*
He, ſhe, or *it hath,* or *has.*	*They have.*

Imperfect Tenſe.

I had.	*We had.*
Thou hadſt.	*Ye* or *you had.*
He had	*They had.*

Perfect Tenſe.

I have had.	*We have had.*
Thou haſt had.	*Ye* or *you have had.*
He hath or *has had.*	*They have had.*

Pluperfect Tenſe.

I had had.	*We had had.*
Thou hadſt had.	*Ye* or *you had had.*
He had had.	*They had had.*

Firſt Future Tenſe.

I ſhall or *will have.*	*We ſhall* or *will have.*
Thou ſhalt or *wilt have.*	*Ye* or *you ſhall* or *will have.*
He ſhall or *will have.*	*They ſhall* or *will have.*

Second Future Tenſe.

I ſhall or *will have had.*	*We ſhall* or *will have had.*
Thou ſhalt or *wilt have had.*	*Ye* or *you ſhall* or *will have had*
He ſhall or *will have had.*	*They ſhall* or *will have had.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

	Let us have.
Have or *have thou.*	*Have* or *have ye* or *you.*
Let him or *her* or *it have.*	*Let them have.*

POTENTIAL

POTENTIAL MOOD. Preſ. Tenſe.

I muſt, may, or *can have.* *We muſt, may,* or *can have.*

Thou muſt, mayſt, or *canſt have.* *Ye* or *you muſt, may,* or *can have.*

He muſt, may, or *can have.* *They muſt, may,* or *can have.*

Imperfect Tenſe.

I might, could, ſhould, or *would have.* *We might, could, ſhould,* or *would have.*

Thou mighteſt, couldſt, ſhouldſt, or *wouldſt have.* *Ye* or *you might, could, ſhould,* or *would have.*

He might, could, ſhould, or *would have.* *They might, could, ſhould,* or *would have.*

Perfect Tenſe.

I muſt, may, or *can have had.* *We muſt, may,* or *can have had.*

Thou muſt, mayſt, or *canſt have had.* *Ye* or *you muſt, may,* or *can have had.*

He muſt, may, or *can have had.* *They muſt, may,* or *can have had.*

Pluperfect Tenſe.

I might, could, ſhould, or *would have had.* *We might, could, ſhould,* or *would have had.*

Thou mighteſt, couldſt, ſhouldſt or *wouldſt have had.* *Ye* or *you might, could, ſhould,* or *would have had.*

He might, could, ſhould, or *would have had.* *They might, could, ſhould,* or *would have had.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Preſent Tenſe, *to have.* Perfect Tenſe, *to have had.*

PARTICIPLES.

Preſent Participle, *having.* Perfect Participle, *had.*
Paſſed Participle, *having had.*

The Subjunctive Mood in all Verbs, except in the Preſent and Imperfect Tenſes of the Verb *to be*, is the ſame as the

Indicative or Potential Mood, except that it never changes its termination; as, *If I had*; *if thou had*; *if he had*; *if we had*; *if ye* or *you had*; *if they had.* Or, omitting the Conjunction; *had I*; *had thou*; *had he*; *had we*; *had ye* or *you*; *had they.*

30. REG. and IRREG. VERBS. Regular Verbs are ſuch as form their Imperfect Tenſe and Perfect Participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the Preſent Tenſe; as, *call, called, called*; *love, loved, loved.*

31. Irregular Verbs are ſuch as do not form their Imperfect Tenſe and Perfect Participle by the addition of *d or ed.* Ex. *Am, was, been. Write, wrote, written.*

32. Regular and Irregular Verbs are conjugated ſo nearly alike, that the ſame example may ſerve for both.

The Irregular Verb *to chooſe*, conjugated in the Indefinite Conjugation:

Chooſe, choſe, choſen.

INDICATIVE MOOD. Preſ. Tenſe.

I chooſe or *do chooſe.*
Thou chooſeſt or *doſt chooſe.*
He chooſes, chooſeth, doth or *does chooſe.*
We chooſe or *do chooſe.*
Ye or *you chooſe* or *do chooſe.*
They chooſe or *do chooſe.*

Imperfect Tenſe.

I choſe or *did chooſe.*
Thou choſeſt or *didſt chooſe.*
He choſe or *did chooſe.*
We choſe or did chooſe.
Ye or *you choſe* or *did chooſe.*
They choſe or *did chooſe.*

Perfect Tenſe.

I have choſen.
Thou haſt choſen.
He hath or *has choſen.*
We have choſen.
Ye or *you have choſen.*
They have choſen.

Pluperfect Tenſe.

I had choſen.
Thou hadſt choſen.
He had choſen.
We had choſen.
Ye or *you had choſen.*
They had choſen.

First

First Future Tenſe.

I ſhall or *will chooſe.*
We ſhall or *will chooſe.*
Thou ſhalt or *wilt chooſe.*
Ye or *you ſhall* or *will chooſe.*
He ſhall or *will chooſe.*
They ſhall or *will chooſe.*

Second Future Tenſe.

I ſhall or *will have choſen.*
We ſhall or *will have choſen.*
Thou ſhalt or *wilt have choſen.*
Ye or *you ſhall* or *will have choſen.*
He ſhall or *will have choſen.*
They ſhall or *will have choſen.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Let us chooſe.
Chooſe or *do thou chooſe.*
Chooſe ye or *you*, or *do you chooſe.*
Let him chooſe.
Let them chooſe.

POTENTIAL MOOD. Preſ. Tenſe.

I muſt, may, or *can chooſe.*
We muſt, may, or *can chooſe.*
Thou muſt, mayſt, or *canſt chooſe.*
Ye or *you muſt, may,* or *can chooſe.*
He muſt, may, or *can chooſe.*
They muſt, may, or *can chooſe.*

Imperfect Tenſe.

I might, could, ſhould, or *would chooſe.*
We might, could, ſhould, or *would chooſe.*
Thou mighteſt, couldſt, ſhouldſt, or *wouldſt chooſe.*
Ye or *you might, could, ſhould,* or *would chooſe.*
He might, could, ſhould, or *would chooſe.*
They might, could, ſhould, or *would chooſe.*

Perfect Tenſe.

I muſt, may, or *can have choſen.*
We muſt, may, or *can have choſen.*
Thou muſt, mayſt, or *canſt have choſen.*
Ye or *you muſt, may,* or *can have choſen.*
He muſt, may, or *can have choſen.*
They muſt, may, or *can have choſen.*

Pluperfect Tenſe.

I might, could, ſhould, or *would have choſen.*
We might, could, ſhould, or *would have choſen.*
Thou mighteſt, couldſt, ſhouldſt or *wouldſt have choſen.*
Ye or *you might, could, ſhould, or would have choſen.*
He might, could, ſhould, or *would have choſen.*
They might, could, ſhould, or *would have choſen.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Preſent Tenſe, *to chooſe.* Perf. Tenſe, *to have choſen.*

PARTICIPLES.

Preſent Participle, *chooſing.* Perf. Participle, *choſen.*
Paſſed Part. *having choſen.*

33. The definite* conjugation is formed by adding the Preſent Participle of the Active or Neuter Verb to the Auxiliary Verb *to be*; as, *to be calling*; *to be chooſing.* It is called the definite conjugation, becauſe it marks time with greater preciſion than the Indefinite Conjugation.

The verb *to chooſe* conjugated in the definite Conjugation:

INDICATIVE MOOD. Pref. Tenſe.

I am chooſing.
We are chooſing.
Thou art chooſing.
Ye or *you are chooſing.*
He, ſhe, or *it is chooſing.*
They are chooſing.

Imperfect Tenſe.

I was chooſing.
We were, &c.
Thou waſt, &c.
Ye or *you were,* &c.
He was, &c.
They were, &c.

* The author is not ſingular in ſuppoſing two conjugations of Verbs, the Definite a nd Indefinite; a diviſion, into which Engliſh Verbs naturally fall. Mr. Harris, in his Treatiſe of Univerſal Grammar, has preciſely marked this diſtinction, by dividing time into Definite and Indefinite; thus, *I write*; *I am writing.* The former he ſpecifies as an inſtance of the Indefinite Preſent Time; the latter as an inſtance of the Definite. The ſame diſtinction has been noted by Biſhop Lowth.

Perfect

Perfect Tenſe.

I have been chooſing. *We have been,* &c.
Thou haſt been, &c. *Ye* or *you have been,* &c.
He hath or *has been,* &c. *They have been,* &c.

Pluperfect Tenſe.

I had been chooſing. *We had been,* &c.
Thou hadſt been, &c. *Ye* or *you had been,* &c.
He had been, &c. *They had been,* &c.

Firſt Future Tenſe.

I ſhall or *will be chooſing.* *We ſhall* or *will be,* &c.
Thou ſhalt or *wilt be,* &c. *Ye* or *you ſhall* or *will be,* &c.
He ſhall or *will be,* &c. *They ſhall* or *will be,* &c.

Second Future Tenſe.

I ſhall or *will have been chooſing.* *We ſhall* or *will have been,* &c.
Thou ſhalt or *wilt have been,* &c. *Ye* or *you ſhall* or *will have been,* &c.
He ſhall or *will have been,* &c. *They ſhall* or *will have been,* &c.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Let us be, &c.
Be or *be thou chooſing.* *Be ye* or *you,* &c.
Let him or *her* or *it be,* &c. *Let them be,* &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD. Preſ. Tenſe.

I muſt, may, or *can be chooſing.* *We muſt, may,* or *can be,* &c.
Thou muſt, mayſt, or *canſt be,* &c. *Ye* or *you muſt, may,* or *can be,* &c.
He muſt, may, or *can be,* &c. *They muſt, may,* or *can be,* &c.

Imperfect Tenſe.

I might, could, ſhould, or *would be chooſing.* *We might, could, ſhould,* or *would be,* &c.
Thou mighteſt, couldſt, ſhouldſt or *wouldſt be,* &c. *Ye* or *you might, could, ſhould,* or *would be,* &c.
He might, could, ſhould, or *would be,* &c. *They might, could, ſhould,* or *would be,* &c.

Perfect Tenſe.

I muſt, may, or *can have been chooſing.*
We muſt, may, or *can have been,* &c.
Thou muſt, mayſt, or *canſt have been,* &c.
Ye or *you muſt, may,* or *can have been,* &c.
He muſt, may, or *can have been,* &c.
They muſt, may, or *can have been,* &c.

Pluperfect Tenſe.

I might, could, ſhould, or *would have been chooſing.*
We might, could, ſhould, or *would have been,* &c.
Thou mighteſt, couldſt, ſhouldſt or *wouldſt have been,* &c.
Ye or *you might, could, ſhould* or *would have been,* &c.
He might, could, ſhould, or *would have been,* &c.
They might, could, ſhould, or *would have been,* &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. Preſ. Tenſe.

If I be chooſing.
If we be, &c.
If thou be, &c.
If ye or *you be,* &c.
If he be, &c.
If they be, &c.

Imperfect Tenſe.

If I were chooſing.
If we were, &c.
If thou wert, &c.
If ye or *you were,* &c.
If he were, &c.
If they were, &c.

Or omitting the Conjunction,

Were I chooſing.
Were we, &c.
Wert thou, &c.
Were ye or *you,* &c.
Were he, &c.
Were they, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Preſ. Tenſe, *to be chooſing.* Per. T. *to have been chooſing.*

PARTICIPLES.

Preſent Part. *being chooſing.* Perfect Part. *been chooſing.*
Paſſed P. *having been chooſing*

34. PASSIVE VERB. The Paſſive Verb is formed by adding the Perfect Participle of the Active Verb to the Auxiliary Verb *to be,* as, *to be called; to be choſen.*

The

The Paſſive Verb *to be choſen* conjugated:

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Preſent Tenſe, *I am choſen, thou art choſen,* &c.
Imperfect Tenſe, *I was choſen,* &c.
Perfect Tenſe, *I have been choſen,* &c.
Pluperfect Tenſe, *I had been choſen,* &c.
Firſt Future Tenſe, *I ſhall* or *will be choſen,* &c.
Second Future Tenſe, *I ſhall* or *will have been choſen,* &c.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be choſen, or, *be thou choſen,* &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Preſent Tenſe, *I muſt, may,* or *can be choſen,* &c.
Imperfect Tenſe, *I might, could, ſhould,* or *would be choſen,* &c.
Perfect Tenſe, *I muſt, may,* or *can have been choſen,* &c
Pluperfect Tenſe, *I might, could, ſhould,* or *would have been choſen,* &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Preſent Tenſe, *If I be choſen,* &c.
Imperfect Tenſe, *If I were choſen,* &c. or *were I choſen,* &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Preſent Tenſe, *to be choſen.* Perf. T. *to have been choſen.*

PARTICIPLES.

Preſent Part. *being choſen.* Perfect Part. *been choſen.*
Paſſed Part. *having been choſen.*

35. The Irregular and Defective Verbs conjugated in the abridged form, for which ſee paragraph 28, are as follows:

Abide,	*abode,*	
Am,	*was,*	*been.*
Ariſe,	*aroſe,*	*ariſen.*
Awake,	*awaked,*	*awaked.*
	awoke,	
Bear,	*bore,*	*borne.*
Beat,	*beat,*	*beaten,*
Begin,	*began,*	*begun.*
Beget,	*begot,*	*begotten.*
Behold,	*beheld,*	*beheld.*
Bend,	*bended,*	*bended.*
	bent,	*bent.*
Bereave,	*bereft,*	*bereft.*
Beſeech,	*beſought,*	*beſought.*
Bid,	*bade,*	*bidden.*
Bind,	*bound,*	*bound.*

Beware

*Beware**		
Bite,	*bit,*	*bitten.*
Bleed,	*bled,*	*bled.*
Blow,	*blew,*	*blown.*
Break,	*broke,*	*broken.*
Breed,	*bred,*	*bred.*
Bring,	*brought,*	*brought,*
Can,	*could,*	
Caſt,	*caſt,*	*caſt.*
Catch,	*caught,*	*caught,*
Chide,	*chid,*	*chidden.*
Chooſe,	*choſe,*	*choſen.*
Cleave,	*cleft,*	*cleft,*
Cling,	*clung,*	*clung.*
Clothe,	*clothed,*	*clothed,*
	clad,	*clad.*
Come,	*came,*	*come.*
Coſt,	*coſt,*	*coſt.*
Crow,	*crew,*	*crowed.*
Creep,	*crept,*	*crept.*
Cut,	*cut,*	*cut.*
Dare†,	*durſt,*	*dared.*
Deal,	*dealt,*	*dealt.*
Dig,	*digged,*	*digged,*
	dug,	*dug.*
Do,	*did,*	*done.*
Draw,	*drew,*	*drawn.*
Dream,	*dreamt,*	*dreamt.*
Drive,	*drove,*	*driven.*
Drink,	*drank,*	*drunk.*
Dwell,	*dwelt,*	*dwelt.*
Eat,	*ate,*	*eaten.*
Fall,	*fell,*	*fallen.*
Feed,	*fed,*	*fed.*
Feel,	*felt,*	*felt.*
Fight,	*fought,*	*fought.*
Find,	*found,*	*found.*
Flee‡,	*fled,*	*fled.*
Fling,	*flung,*	*flung.*
Fly‡,	*flew,*	*flown.*
Forget,	*forgot,*	*forgotten*
Forſake,	*forſook,*	*forſaken.*
Freeze,	*froze,*	*frozen.*
Get‖,	*got,*	*got,*
		gotten.
Gild,	*gilded,*	*gilded,*
	gilt,	*gilt.*
Gird,	*girded,*	*girded,*
	girt,	*girt.*
Give,	*gave,*	*given.*
Go,	*went,*	*gone.*
Grind,	*ground,*	*ground.*
Grow,	*grew,*	*grown.*
Have,	*had,*	*had.*
Hang§,	*hanged,*	*hanged,*
	hung,	*hung.*
Hew,	*hewed,*	*hewed.*
		hewn.
Hide,	*hid,*	*hidden.*
Hit,	*hit,*	*hit.*

* 36. The Verb *to beware* has only the Preſent Tenſe of the Infinitive Mood, the Imperative Mood, the Firſt Future of the Indicative, and the Preſent and Imperfect Tenſes of the Potential Mood.

37. † *To dare* (to venture) forms *durſt* in its Imperfect Tenſe, which does not change in the ſecond perſon ſingular. *To dare* (to challenge or defy) is a regular verb; as, *dare, dared, dared.*

38. ‡ The Verb *to fly* ought to be carefully diſtinguiſhed from the Verb *to flee, to run away*; for *a man flees from danger*; but *a bird flies with wings.* It is therefore improper to ſay, *the bird fled out of the window,* inſtead of, *the bird flew out of the window.*

39. ‖ The Verb *to get*, when uſed to ſignify mere poſſeſſion is improper; Ex. *Is that a good pen you have got*; is better thus, *Is that a good pen you have.*

40. § The different Imperfect Tenſes and Participles of the Verb *to hang*, ſeem to be uſed in different ſignifications. Thus we ſay, *they hanged a man*, or, *a man was hanged to-day. He hung up his hat*, or, *his hat was hung up.*

Hold,

Hold,	*held,*	*held,*
		holden.
Hurt,	*hurt,*	*hurt.*
Keep,	*kept,*	*kept.*
Knit,	*knitted,*	*knitted,*
	knit,	*knit.*
Know,	*knew,*	*known.*
Lade,	*laded,*	*laden.*
Load,	*loaded,*	*loaden.*
Lead,	*led,*	*led.*
Leave,	*left,*	*left.*
Lend,	*lent,*	*lent.*
Let,	*let,*	*let.*
Light †,	*lighted,*	*lighted,*
	light,	*light.*
Lie ‡,	*lay,*	*lain.*
Loſe,	*loſt,*	*loſt.*
Make,	*made,*	*made.*
May,	*might,*	
Mean,	*meant,*	*meant.*
Meet,	*met,*	*met.*
Mow,	*mowed,*	*mowed,*
		mown.
Muſt ‖		
Ought ‖,		
Pay,	*paid,*	*paid.*
Put,	*put,*	*put.*
Quoth §,	*quoth,*	
Read,	*rêad,*	*rêad.*
Rend, / *Rent,*	*rent,*	*rent.*
Rid,	*rid,*	*rid.*
Ride,	*rode,*	*ridden.*
Ring,	*rung,*	*rung.*
	rang,	
Riſe,	*roſe,*	*riſen.*
Rive,	*rived,*	*riven.*
Run,	*ran,*	*run.*
Saw,	*ſawed,*	*ſawn.*
Say,	*ſaid,*	*ſaid.*
See,	*ſaw,*	*ſeen.*
Seek,	*ſought,*	*ſought.*
Seethe,	*ſeethed,*	*ſodden.*
Sell,	*ſold,*	*ſold.*
Send,	*ſent,*	*ſent.*
Set,	*ſet,*	*ſet.*
Shake,	*ſhook,*	*ſhaken.*
Shave,	*ſhaved,*	*ſhaven.*
Shear,	*ſhore,*	*ſhorn.*
Shed,	*ſhed,*	*ſhed.*
Shine,	*ſhined,*	*ſhined.*
	ſhone	*ſhone.*
Show,	*ſhowed,*	*ſhown.*
Shew,	*ſhewed*	*ſhewn.*
Shoe,	*ſhod,*	*ſhod.*
Shall,	*ſhould,*	
Shoot,	*ſhot,*	*ſhot.*
Shrink,	*ſhrunk,*	*ſhrunk.*
	ſhrank,	
Shred,	*ſhred,*	*ſhred.*
Shut,	*ſhut,*	*ſhut.*
Smite,	*ſmote,*	*ſmitten.*

41. † When the Irregular Imperfect Tenſe and Participle of this Verb are uſed, they are pronounced ſhort, *lit.* The Regular form is pronounced long, and is more uſed; as, *have they lighted the candles?*

42. ‡ The Neuter Verb *to lie* is often confounded with the Tranſitive Verb *to lay* (to put or place). It is very improper to ſay, *Where did you lay laſt night,* inſtead of, *Where did you lie laſt night?*

43. ‖ *Muſt* expreſſes neceſſity; *ought* ſignifies duty. When *ought* is joined to the Preſent Tenſe of the Infinitive Mood, it expreſſes preſent time; as, *We ought to do ſo now*; but when joined to the Perfect Tenſe of the ſame Mood, it expreſſes paſt time; as, *we ought to have done ſo yeſterday.*

44. § The Defective Verb *quoth* has only the firſt and third perſons in both Tenſes, and always precedes its Nominative Caſe; as, *quoth I; quoth he.*

Sing,

Sing,	*ſung,*	*ſung.*
	ſang,	
Sink,	*ſunk,*	*ſunk.*
Sit,	*ſat,*	*ſat,*
		ſitten.
Slay,	*ſlew,*	*ſlain.*
Sleep,	*ſlept,*	*ſlept.*
Slide,	*ſlid,*	*ſlidden.*
Sling,	*ſlung,*	*ſlung.*
Slink,	*ſlunk,*	*ſlunk.*
Slit,	*ſlitted,*	*ſlitted,*
	ſlit,	*ſlit.*
Sow,	*ſowed,*	*ſown.*
Speak,	*ſpoke,*	*ſpoken.*
Speed,	*ſped,*	*ſped,*
Spend,	*ſpent,*	*ſpent,*
Spin,	*ſpun,*	*ſpun.*
Spit,	*ſpat,*	*ſpitten.*
Split,	*ſplitted,*	*ſplitted,*
	ſplit,	*ſplit.*
Spread,	*ſpread,*	*ſpread.*
Spring,	*ſprung,*	*ſprung.*
Stand,	*ſtood,*	*ſtood.*
Steal,	*ſtole,*	*ſtolen.*
Stick,	*ſtuck,*	*ſtuck.*
Sting,	*ſtung,*	*ſtung.*
Stink,	*ſtunk,*	*ſtunk.*
Stride,	*ſtrode,*	*ſtridden.*
	ſtrid,	
Strike,	*ſtruck,*	*ſtruck,*
String,	*ſtrung,*	*ſtrung.*
Strive,	*ſtrove*	*ſtriven.*
Strew,	*ſtrewed,*	*ſtrewn,*
Strow,	*ſtrowed,*	*ſtrown.*
Swear,	*ſwore,*	*ſworn.*
Sweat,	*ſwetted,*	*ſwetted,*
	ſwet,	*ſwet.*
Sweep,	*ſwept,*	*ſwept.*
Swim,	*ſwam,*	*ſwum.*
Swing,	*ſwung,*	*ſwung.*
Take,	*took,*	*taken.*
Teach,	*taught,*	*taught.*
Tear,	*tore,*	*torn.*
Tell,	*told,*	*told.*
Think,	*thought,*	*thought.*
Thrive,	*throve,*	*thriven,*
Throw,	*threw,*	*thrown.*
Thruſt,	*thruſt,*	*thruſt.*
Tread,	*trod,*	*trodden.*
Wear,	*wore,*	*worn.*
Weave,	*wove,*	*woven.*
Weep,	*wept,*	*wept.*
Will,	*would,*	
Win,	*won,*	*won.*
Wind,	*wound,*	*wound.*
Wring,	*wrung,*	*wrung.*
Write,	*wrote,*	*written.*

Such Regular Verbs as ſeem improperly contracted in *t*, are omitted in this liſt. Ex. *bleſs, bleſt, bleſt. Diſperſe, diſperſt, diſperſt. Diſtreſs, diſtreſt, diſtreſt. Paſs, paſt, paſt Drop, dropt, dropt,* &c. which ſeem improperly contracted, for, *bleſs, bleſſed, bleſſed. Diſperſe, diſperſed, diſperſed. Diſtreſs, diſtreſſed, diſtreſſed. Paſs, paſſed, paſſed. Drop, dropped, dropped,* &c.

OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

45. AUXILIARY VERBS. The Verb *to have* is always followed by the Perfect Participle of the Verb, as, *I have written, I had ariſen, I ſhall have gone,* &c.

46. This

46. This Verb is ſometimes improperly uſed for ſome of the other Auxiliaries. *I had rather do ſo*, is improperly ſaid for, *I would rather do ſo. I had like to fall*, is equally improper when uſed for, *I was like to fall.*

47. The Verb *to be* is always followed by the Perfect Participle of Tranſitive and Neuter Verbs; as, *It is written; I was ariſen; he will be driven*, &c.

48. The Verb *to be* is followed by the Nominative Caſe; as, *I am he; it was I.*

49. *Who do men ſay that I am? Who ſay ye that I am?* In theſe ſentences *who* is properly in the Nominative Caſe, agreeing in caſe with the Pronoun *I*.

50. But when the Infinitive Mood *to be* follows an Objective Caſe, it requires an Objective Caſe after it; as, *Did you ſuppoſe him to be me.* As *him* is in the Objective Caſe after the Verb *ſuppoſe*, the Verb *to be* is followed by the Objective Caſe *me.*

51. *Whom do they think me to be? Whom do you ſuppoſe me to be?* In theſe ſentences *whom* is properly in the Objective Caſe, agreeing in caſe with *me.*

52. The Preſent and Imperfect Tenſes of the Verb *to be* are often followed by the Preſent Tenſe of the Infinitive Mood denoting a future event; as, *He is to tranſact the buſineſs. The ſhip was to ſail.*

53. *Do*, and its Imperfect Tenſe *did*, are borrowed from the complete Verb *to do*, and ſerve to mark the action or time of the Verb with greater force and preciſion; as, *I do aſſure you it is true. He certainly did die.* They are alſo uſed in interrogative and negative ſentences; as, *Do you hear me? He did not fall.*

54. *Shall* is uſed to mark a future time, but varies in its ſignification in the different perſons. In the firſt perſon it ſimply foretells; as, *I ſhall be wet if I walk in the rain.*

rain. In the ſecond and third perſons it promiſes, commands, or threatens; as, *He ſhall be puniſhed. You ſhall not go, becauſe you are naughty.*

55. *Should,* when it expreſſes regularly the paſt time of *ſhall,* reſembles *ſhall* in the different meanings it takes in the different perſons. In the firſt perſon it foretells ſomething happening in conſequence of a ſuppoſition; as, *Were that to happen, I ſhould be a ſufferer.* In the ſecond and third perſons it threatens or enforces ſome command after a ſuppoſition; as, *Were it my pleaſure, you ſhould go, and he ſhould ſtay at home.*

56. *Should* in its other ſignifications does not ſeem to change its meaning in the different perſons. It is frequently uſed to denote what ought to be; as, *Men ſhould be what they ſeem. We ſhould love our Neighbour as ourſelves.*

57. When *ſhould* follows *if,* or any word expreſſing uncertainty, it ſignifies that ſomething may poſſibly happen, as, *I ſtayed leſt they ſhould offer him violence. I wonder how he ſhould forget me. How ſhould Proſpero be living.*

58. The Auxiliary Verb *will* ought to be carefully diſtinguiſhed from the Regular Verb *to will,* which is a Complete Verb; as, *will, willed, willed.* It muſt be owned, however, that theſe two Verbs on ſome occaſions approach ſo nearly in ſignification, that it is difficult to mark the exact boundaries between them.

59. *Will* denotes a future time, but changes its ſignification in the different perſons. In the firſt perſon it denotes inclination; as, *I will do as I like in this buſineſs.* In the ſecond and third perſons it ſimply foretells; as, *I am afraid you will repent it. He will probably do himſelf harm in that affair.*

60. *Would,* when it regularly expreſſes the Paſt Time of *will,* differs alſo in ſignification in the different perſons

ſons. In the firſt perſon it implies inclination; as, *I would go if I could.* In the ſecond and third perſons it foretells; as, *I thought you would not ſucceed. I ſuſpected he would fall. I wiſh it would rain.*

61. *Would* frequently occurs in different ſenſes without any regular reſpect to time, and without any difference of ſignification in the perſons. It is ſometimes uſed as a pathetic form of wiſhing; as, *Would you were indeed my mother! Would he had been there!*

62. *Can* and *could*, denote power.

63. *May* ſometimes expreſſes liberty; as, *I may do what I pleaſe*; permiſſion; as, *You may play*; a prayer or wiſh; as, *Mayſt thou, Father of mercies, keep our ſouls from evil:* or poſſibility; as, *It may rain.* The ſame may be obſerved of its paſt time *might.*

64. *Let* in the Imperative Mood is borrowed from the Complete Verb *to let.* See *muſt* in the liſt of irregular verbs.

65. The Auxiliary may often ſtand at a diſtance from the Participle to which it belongs; as,

Twilight grey
Had in her ſober livery all things clad.

In this example the Participle *clad* is ſeparated by ſeveral intermediate words from its Auxiliary *had.*

66. ACTIVE VERBS. A Verb Active is known by its having an object or Subſtantive after it; as, *I love oranges.* Here *love* is an Active Verb, becauſe it has the Subſtantive *oranges* after it.

67. PASSIVE VERBS. Paſſive Verbs are known by their being preceded by the object and followed by the agent of the Verb; as, *oranges are lov'd by me. Are loved* is a Paſſive Verb, becauſe it is preceded by its object *oranges*, and followed by its agent *me.*

68. NEUTER VERBS. Neuter Verbs are known by their not having an object after them; as, *I ſleep*; *he travelled*. The Verbs *ſleep* and *travelled*, are Neuter Verbs, becauſe they have no object after them.

69. Neuter Verbs cannot be changed into Paſſive Verbs, but their perfect Participles are often uſed as Adjectives; as, *a fallen tree*; *a departed friend*; and as ſuch are joined to the Verb *to be*; as, *he is ariſen*; *they are fallen*.*

70. Moſt Neuter Verbs, when a Prepoſition is added to them, become Active and require an object after them; as, *he winked at his brother's crimes*. *To wink* is a Verb Neuter, and cannot have an object after it; but by the addition of the Prepoſition *at*, it becomes an Active Verb, and requires an object after it. See Prepoſitions 23, &c.

71. Neuter Verbs which become Active by the addition of a Prepoſition, may be often changed into Paſſive Verbs; as, *His brother's crimes were winked at by him*. *Were winked at* is a Paſſive Verb, becauſe it is preceded by its object *crimes*, and followed by its agent *him*.

* As a proof that the Perfect Participles of Neuter Verbs are uſed merely as Adjectives, we may obſerve, that when there is an Adjective expreſſing the idea of the Neuter Verb, the Participle of the Neuter Verb is never uſed after the Verb *to be* as an Adjective. Thus, we ſay, *he was awake all the time*, when we mean to expreſs the mere circumſtance of being awake; but when we uſe the Verb in a paſſive ſenſe we then employ the Participle, and ſay, *he was awaked by the noiſe you made*.

This remark explains an idiom which a celebrated grammarian looks upon as an abuſe of language; for in the ſentence, *you are too much miſtaken in this king*, the word *miſtaken* is uſed merely as an Adjective, without any reference to time, and may admit compariſon; as, *you are more miſtaken than I in this king*. When uſed as a Paſſive Verb it is followed by an agent; as, *the affair was miſtaken by you*; here *was miſtaken* is a Paſſive Verb, becauſe it is followed by its agent *you*.

72. Several

72. Several Verbs may be uſed either in a Neuter or Active ſignification, the conſtruction alone determining in what ſenſe they are taken; as, *Birds ſeparate when affrighted.* Here *ſeparate* is a Neuter Verb, becauſe it has no object after it. *He will ſeparate the chaff from the corn.* Here *ſeparate* is an Active Verb, becauſe it has an object after it, which is *chaff.*

73. In the definite form of conjugation, ſeveral Active Verbs are often uſed in a Neuter ſignification; as, *A houſe is building.* Here the Verb *is building* is uſed in a Neuter ſignification, as it has no object after it. *He is building a houſe.* Here *is building* continues an Active Verb, becauſe it has an object after it.

74. In familiar converſation the article *a* is ſometimes uſed before theſe Verbs; as, *the houſes are a building.* It is better omitted.

75. Neuter Verbs ſhould never be uſed in an Active ſignification. In the ſentence, *go, flee thee away into the land of Judah,* the Neuter Verb *flee* is improperly followed by the object *thee.* It ought to be, *go, flee away into the land of Judah. To vie charities* ought to be, *to vie in charities,* becauſe to vie is a neuter verb. *To agree ſacred with profane chronology,* ought to be, *to connect ſacred with profane chronology. To riſe corn* ought to be, *to raiſe corn.*

76. NOMINATIVE CASE. Every Verb has its Nominative Caſe which is known by aſking the queſtion who or what in the Verb. The word anſwering the queſtion is the Nominative Caſe. Thus in the ſentence *Samſon ſlew a lion,* we need only aſk the queſtion, Who ſlew a lion? and the anſwer is, *Samſon,* which is therefore the Nominative Caſe to the Verb *ſlew.*

77. The Verb muſt agree with its Nominative Caſe in

number and perſon; as, *I am*: *am* is the firſt perſon ſingular, agreeing with its Nominative Caſe *I*. *You were*: *were* is the ſecond perſon plural, agreeing with its Nominative Caſe *you*. *George the Third reigns*: *reigns* is the third perſon ſingular, agreeing with its Nominative caſe *George*.

78 Two or more Nominative Caſes united by Conjunctions require the Verb in the plural number; as, *Socrates and Plato were wiſe*. The Verb *were* is in the plural number, agreeing with its two nominative caſes *Socrates* and *Plato*.

79. Verbs and Pronouns may be either in the ſingular or plural number, when they agree with a Noun of Multitude; as, *The clergy is*, or *are*, *a large body of men*.

80. A Noun or a Pronoun joined to a Participle, and having no Verb to agree with it, becomes a Nominative caſe abſolute; as, *Very few of the Roman writers, he excepted, ever made a great progreſs in philoſophy*. As *he* has no Verb agreeing with it, but is joined to the Participle *excepted*, they both form a Nominative Caſe abſolute.

81. Sometimes an Infinitive Mood or a part of a ſentence ſerves as Nominative Caſe to a Verb in the third perſon ſingular; as, *to murder is a great crime*: *to murder* is the Nominative Caſe to the Verb *is*. *To be diſcontented in the ſtate we are in, argues a high degree of folly*: *to be diſcontented in the ſtate we are in*, ſerves as Nominative Caſe to the Verb *argues*. Such Nominative Caſes may in general follow the Verb, if the Neuter Pronoun *it* be ſet before the Verb as its Nominative Caſe. Ex. *It is a great crime to murder. It argues a high degree of folly to be diſcontented in the ſtate we are in.*

82. *It* is ſometimes uſed as the Nominative Caſe to the

the preſent and imperfect tenſes of the Verb *to be*, to mark an aſſertion with greater emphaſis; Ex. *It was you that did ſo*, is a more forcible expreſſion than *you did ſo**.

83. *It* is uſed as a Nominative Caſe to certain Neuter Verbs called Impersonal Verbs; as, *It thunders, it rains, it freezes*. They are called Impersonal Verbs, becauſe they are uſed only in the third perſon ſingular†.

* In this example *it* is not a relative, for there is no antecedent either expreſſed or underſtood to which it may refer. Uſe alone, which has determined the propriety of the phraſe, has invariably appropriated this Neuter Pronoun to ſerve as Nominative Caſe to the Verb *to be*, when employed to give emphaſis to a ſentence.

† The nature of theſe Verbs is perhaps the ſame in all languages. The reaſon of this ſeems to be, that in the different phenomena of nature expreſſed by theſe Verbs, we do not diſtinguiſh between the agent, which is the thing itſelf, for example *thunder*, and the manner in which this agent affects our ſenſes. For as languages were formed before men undertook to reaſon or to enquire into the nature of what they ſaw, they expreſſed by the ſame word the viſible agent and its manner of acting, which they always obſerved united. Hence if we inquire in Latin or Greek for the Nominative Caſe to theſe Verbs, we ſhall find it expreſſed in the Verb itſelf. And as this Nominative Caſe when ſeparated from the ideas of time and action is in the third perſon as *thunder* or *rain*, we ſee the reaſon why theſe Verbs muſt always be in the third perſon. This remarks regards only thoſe Verbs which expreſs the different phenomena of nature; for the other Verbs that put on an impersonal form, have a ſecond Nominative Caſe expreſſed or underſtood in the ſentence.

As the Engliſh language has appropriated the Neuter Pronoun *it* to ſupply the place of the Nominative Caſe on many occaſions, ſo does it likewiſe before theſe Impersonal Verbs, *It thunders, it rains*, &c. and we may, agreeably to the genius of our language, ſuppoſe it a relative ſerving as a Nominative Caſe to the Verb, and repreſenting the Subſtantive implied in the Verb. Thus, when we ſay, *it thunders*, *it* is the Nominative Caſe to the Verb, and is at the ſame time a relative agreeing with the Subſtantive *thunder* expreſſed in the Verb.

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83. *It* is uſed as a Nominative Caſe to certain Neuter Verbs called Impersonal Verbs; as, *It thunders, it rains, it freezes.* They are called Impersonal Verbs, becauſe they are uſed only in the third perſon ſingular†.

* In this example *it* is not a relative, for there is no antecedent either expreſſed or underſtood to which it may refer. Uſe alone, which has determined the propriety of the phraſe, has invariably appropriated this Neuter Pronoun to ſerve as Nominative Caſe to the Verb *to be*, when employed to give emphaſis to a ſentence.

† The nature of theſe Verbs is perhaps the ſame in all languages. The reaſon of this ſeems to be, that in the different phenomena of nature expreſſed by theſe Verbs, we do not diſtinguiſh between the agent, which is the thing itſelf, for example *thunder*, and the manner in which this agent affects our ſenſes. For as languages were formed before men undertook to reaſon or to enquire into the nature of what they ſaw, they expreſſed by the ſame word the viſible agent and its manner of acting, which they always obſerved united. Hence if we inquire in Latin or Greek for the Nominative Caſe to theſe Verbs, we ſhall find it expreſſed in the Verb itſelf. And as this Nominative Caſe when ſeparated from the ideas of time and action is in the third perſon as *thunder* or *rain*, we ſee the reaſon why theſe Verbs muſt always be in the third perſon. This remarks regards only thoſe Verbs which expreſs the different phenomena of nature; for the other Verbs that put on an impersonal form, have a ſecond Nominative Caſe expreſſed or underſtood in the ſentence.

As the Engliſh language has appropriated the Neuter Pronoun *it* to ſupply the place of the Nominative Caſe on many occaſions, ſo does it likewiſe before theſe Impersonal Verbs, *It thunders, it rains*, &c. and we may, agreeably to the genius of our language, ſuppoſe it a relative ſerving as a Nominative Caſe to the Verb, and repreſenting the Subſtantive implied in the Verb. Thus, when we ſay, *it thunders*, *it* is the Nominative Caſe to the Verb, and is at the ſame time a relative agreeing with the Subſtantive *thunder* expreſſed in the Verb.

84. Impersonal Verbs in general are not so much used as they were formerly. Instead of saying, *it pleases me, it grieves me, it rejoices me*; we commonly say, *I am pleased, I am grieved,* or *I grieve, I am rejoiced,* or *I rejoice.*

85. On some occasions, the Nominative Case may elegantly follow the Verb; as, *Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have, give I thee.* The first *I* follows the Verb *have,* to which it is the Nominative Case. The third *I* likewise follows the Verb *give,* to which it is the Nominative Case.

86. The Nominative Case may likewise follow most Neuter Verbs when the sentence begins with an Adverb, or some word belonging to the sentence; as, *There came a man to town yesterday.* Here *man* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *came,* which it follows because the sentence begins with the Adverb *there.*

87. When the Nominative Case to the Imperative Mood is expressed, it always follows the Verb. It is generally omitted, but is known by the sense, or by some subsequent Pronoun referring to it; as, *Honour thy parents.* The Genitive Case *thy* shews that *thou* is the Nominative Case understood.

88. In interrogations the Nominative Case follows the Verb; as, *Seest thou this man? Thou* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *seest.*

89. But when an auxiliary is joined to the Verb, the Nominative Case follows the auxiliary. Ex. *Has he done mischief? He* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *has done.*

90. OBJECTIVE CASE. Active Verbs govern the Objective Case; as, *John saw him. We like them. I love wisdom. Him, them,* and *wisdom* are Objective Cases governed by the Verbs going before them.

91. Some

91. Some Active Verbs govern two Objective Caſes, the one denoting a perſon, the other a thing; as, *He taught them logic. Them* and *logic* are Objective Caſes after the Verb *taught*.

92. An Active Verb has often an Infinitive Mood, or a phraſe after it, inſtead of an Objective Caſe; as, *He knows you have been very ill.* The Verb *knows* has after it the phraſe *you have been very ill,* inſtead of an Objective Caſe.

93. Some Neuter Verbs are followed by an Objective Caſe repeating the idea implied in the Verb, thus, *He lived a devout life.* Such Objective Caſes may be changed into Adverbs; as, *He lived devoutly.*

94. Though the Objective Caſe is generally placed after Verbs, it may ſometimes be placed before them. Ex. *Him they named as the author. Him* is in the Objective Caſe governed by the Verb *named.*

95. The Pronouns *who, whoever, whoſoever,* &c. if governed in the Objective Caſe by a Verb, always ſtand before the Verb which governs them; as, *Whom no man hath ſeen, or can ſee. Whom* is in the Objective Caſe governed by the Verb *hath ſeen,* and *man* is the Nominative Caſe to the ſame Verb.

96. When there is a word either before or after the Verb which may ſerve as a Nominative Caſe to the Verb, theſe Pronouns are to be in the Objective; as, *The maſter whom I ſaw.* As *I* is the Nominative Caſe to the Verb *ſaw, whom* is in the Objective Caſe.

97. But when there is no other word that can be a Nominative Caſe to the Verb, theſe pronouns muſt be in the Nominative Caſe; as, *Who called here this morning? Who* is the Nominative Caſe to the Verb *called,* becauſe there is no other word in the ſentence that can ſerve as a Nominative Caſe to it.

98. MOODS

98. MOODS and TENSES. The Preſent Tenſe of the Indicative Mood is improperly uſed when we ſpeak of paſſed time. Ex. *They continue with me now three days*, ought to be, *They have continued with me now three days*, becauſe the three days are paſſed.

99. The Pluperfect Tenſe of the Indicative Mood may often ſupply the place of the ſame Tenſe in the Potential Mood. We may ſay either, *He had been Diogenes*, or, *he would have been Diogenes, if he had not been Alexander*.

100. A Verb following the Future Tenſe, and expreſſing a conſequence, ought to be in the Preſent Tenſe of the Potential Mood, which admits a future ſignification. The following ſentence is therefore faulty; *Ye will not come to me that ye might have life*. It ought to be, *Ye will not come to me that ye may have life*.

101. If the firſt Verb be in the Imperfect Tenſe of either the Indicative or Potential Mood, the ſecond Verb ought to be in the ſame Tenſe of the Potential Mood; as, *Ye did not come to me*, or, *ye would not come to me, that ye might have life*.

102. But if the Verb be in the Perfect Tenſe of the Indicative Mood, the ſecond Verb may be either in the Imperfect or Perfect Tenſe of the Potential Mood; as, *Ye have not come to me that ye might have life*, or, *Ye have not come to me, that ye may have life*.

103. The Subjunctive Mood always follows words implying uncertainty; ſuch as, *if, though, whether, whoever, whoſoever, whatſoever*, &c. Ex. *Whoſoever he be. Whichſoever he chooſe*.

104. The Infinitive Mood generally follows Verbs, Subſtantives, and Adjectives; Ex. *They ſeem to have acted properly*. *To have acted* is the Infinitive Mood, Perfect Tenſe

Tenſe, after the Verb *ſeem*. And in the following example, *to hear* is the Infinitive Mood, Preſent Tenſe, after the Verb *delight*:

What wonder then if I delight to hear,
Her dictates from thy mouth.

105. The ſign of the Infinitive Mood is omitted after the Verbs *bid*, *hear*, *ſay*, *feel*, *make*, *need*, *ſee*, and *dare*; as, *I bade him do it*, inſtead of, *I bade him to do it*. *I dare not do it*, inſtead of, *I dare not to do it*.

106. The Infinitive Mood is ſometimes uſed in the ſenſe of the Preſent Tenſe of the Potential Mood. Ex. *To bring the matter to a ſpeedy iſſue*, is equivalent to, *That we may bring the matter to a ſpeedy iſſue*.

107. The Infinitive Mood of Active Verbs is often uſed in a neuter ſignification; as, *They are to blame for ſo doing*. *I left my books to bind*. Such Infinitives may be expreſſed perhaps with equal propriety by the Infinitive of the Paſſive Verb; as, *They are to be blamed for ſo doing*. *I left my books to be bound*.

108. The Infinitive Mood, when it does not mark a difference of time from the preceding Verb, is to be in the Preſent Tenſe; as, *He is better than I expected to find him*. Here the Infinitive Mood *to find* marks the ſame time with the Verb *expected*.

109. But when the Infinitive is to mark a time that paſſed before the time of the firſt Verb, then the Perfect Tenſe of the Infinitive is to be uſed; as, *He appears to have ſtudied grammar in his youth*. *Appears* ſpeaks of preſent time, but *to have ſtudied* marks paſt time.

110. PARTICIPLES. Few languages allow ſo extenſive an uſe of Participles as the Engliſh. Our Participles, beſides their natural ſignification and power as Verbs, ſometimes put on the form of Subſtantives, and

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ſometimes of Adjectives; they frequently ſerve as Nominative and Objective Caſes.

111. The Preſent Participle of Tranſitive and Neuter Verbs with an Article before it, and the Prepoſition *of* after it, becomes a Subſtantive; as, *The middle ſtation of life ſeems to be the moſt advantageouſly ſituated for the gaining of wiſdom.* The Participle *gaining*, as it has the Article *the* before it, and *of* after it, becomes a Subſtantive.

112. But if either *the* or *of* be omitted, we ſhould omit both, and then the Participle continues unchanged; as, *The middle ſtation of life ſeems to be the moſt advantageouſly ſituated for gaining wiſdom.* Here *gaining* is a Participle, as it has not the Article before it, nor *of* after it.

113. This Participle follows Perſonal Pronouns and Subſtantives in the Genitive Caſe; as, *Much depends upon men's obſerving the rule, or upon their neglecting it. Men's* and *their* are Genitive Caſes followed by the Participles *obſerving* and *neglecting*.

114. This Participle often becomes an Adjective, and as ſuch admits the degrees of compariſon. It then denotes the quality of the Subſtantive without any reſpect to time, as, *A loving, a more loving*, or, *a moſt loving father.*

115. It may ſerve as a Nominative or Objective Caſe; as, *Riding is a healthy exerciſe. I like walking.* Here *riding* ſerves as a Nominative Caſe before the Verb *is*, and *walking* as an Objective Caſe after the Verb *like.*

116. It is often uſed inſtead of the Infinitive Mood after Subſtantives and Adjectives; as, *The art of writing. Deſirous of ſeeing. Capable of judging.*

117. The Preſent Participle Paſſive may ſerve as a Nominative or Objective Caſe; as, *His being heard gave him great ſatisfaction.* The Participle *being heard* is Nominative Caſe to the Verb *gave. The people lamented his being*

being executed. *Being executed* ſerves as an Objective Caſe after the Verb *lamented.*

118. This Participle may follow a Pronoun or Subſtantive in the Genitive Caſe; thus, *Much depends on the rule's being obſerved, or its being neglected.* *Rule's* and *its* are Genitive Caſes followed by the Participles *being obſerved* and *being neglected.*

119. It may follow Subſtantives and Adjectives; as, *Ambitious of being ſeen: The will of being pleaſed.*

120. The Perfect Participle of Active and Neuter Verbs when joined to a Subſtantive to denote a quality or circumſtance belonging to it, becomes an Adjective, and admits compariſon; as, *He is a learned, a more learned,* or, *a moſt learned man.* The Participle *learned* is here uſed as an Adjective. *He is more read in hiſtory than you.* Here the Participle *read* is uſed as an Adjective in the Comparative degree.

121. This Participle is ſometimes improperly omitted by Ellipſis. In the ſentence, *I ſaw the book, and I ſuppoſe you have.* The Participle *ſeen* is underſtood after the auxiliary *have:* but as it was not expreſſed before, it ought to be inſerted after the auxiliary; as, *I ſaw the book, and I ſuppoſe you have ſeen it.*

122. The Paſt Participle of Active and Neuter Verbs may follow a Subſtantive or Pronoun in the Genitive Caſe; as, *Much depends upon the people's having obſerved the rule, or upon their having neglected it.* The Participles *having obſerved* and *having neglected* follow the Genitive Caſes *people's* and *their.*

123. This Participle may ſerve as a Nominative Caſe; as, *His having travelled was a recommendation.* Here, *having travelled* ſerves as Nominative Caſe to the Verb *was.*

124. It may likewiſe ſerve as an Objective Caſe, as,

He

He repented his having travelled. Here *having travelled* ſerves as an Objective Caſe, after the Verb *repented.*

125. The Paſt Participle of the Paſſive Verb follows Pronouns and Subſtantives in the Genitive Caſe; as, *He mentioned a man's having been burnt. Man's* is the Genitive Caſe followed by the Participle *having been burnt.*

126. This Participle may ſerve as a Nominative Caſe; as, *His having been inſtructed was uſeful. Having been inſtructed* ſerves as Nominative Caſe to the Verb *was.*

12. It may likewiſe ſerve as an Objective Caſe; as, *He laments his having been robbed.* Here, *having been robbed* ſerves as an Objective Caſe after the Verb *laments.*

ADVERBS.

1. AN ADVERB is a word added to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, to expreſs ſome quality or circumſtance; as, *The fire burns well. Well* is an Adverb joined to the Verb *burns. A truly good man. Truly* is an Adverb joined to the Adjective *good. He writes very correctly. Very* is an Adverb joined to the Adverb *correctly.*

2. Adverbs may be divided into as many kinds as there are circumſtances of an action; Ex. Adverbs Of TIME; as, *now, to-day, lately, yeſterday, yet, often, ſeldom,* &c. Of PLACE; as, *here, there, where, thither, hither, above, within, without, out, up, down, on, off,* &c. Of AFFIRMATION; as, *yea, yes, ay, indeed,* &c Of NEGATION; as, *no, not, nay, never,* &c. Of INTERROGATION; as, *how, why, wherefore, whether,* &c. Of ORDER; as, *firſt, ſecondly, next, finally, laſt,* &c. Of NUMBER; as, *once, twice, thrice,* &c. Of QUANTITY or EXCESS; as, *enough, very, largely, little, much, quite, abundantly,* &c.

3. ADVERBS

3. ADVERBS of quality or manner are generally formed by adding *ly* to Adjectives; as, *Wiſe, wiſely. Juſt, juſtly,* &c. When the Adjective ends in *y*, the *y* is changed into *i* to form the Adverb; as, *Happy, happily. Merry, merrily,* &c.

4. Moſt Adverbs admit compariſon; as,

Soon,	*Sooner* or *more ſoon,*	*Sooneſt* or *moſt ſoon.*
Often,	*Oftener* or *more often,*	*Oftineſt* or *moſt often.*
Faſt,	*Faſter* or *more faſt,*	*Faſteſt* or *moſt faſt.*

5. Some are compared irregularly; as,

Well,	*Better,*	*Beſt.*
Badly or *ill,*	*Worſe,*	*Worſt.*
Forth,	*Further,*	*Furtheſt.*

6. Adverbs of many ſyllables, and thoſe that end in *ly*, are compared by *more* and *moſt* only; as,

Wiſely,	*More wiſely,*	*Moſt wiſely.*
Happily,	*More happily,*	*Moſt happily.*
Splendidly,	*More ſplendidly,*	*Moſt ſplendidly.*

Observations and rules of Syntax.

7. Several words in the Engliſh language are ſometimes uſed as Subſtantives, ſometimes as Adjectives, and ſometimes as Adverbs. Ex.

8. *To-day's leſſon is more difficult than yeſterday's, but to-morrow's will be more ſo than either.* Here *yeſterday, to-morrow,* and *to-day* are Subſtantives in the Genitive Caſe. *He came home yeſterday, ſets out again to-day, and returns to morrow.* Here *yeſterday, to-day,* and *to-morrow* are Adverbs, joined to Verbs.

9. *Much money has been expended.* Here *much* is an Adjective joined to the Subſtantive *money*. *He is much happier than you.* Here *much* is an Adverb joined to the Adjective *happier*.

10. *Little things are ſometimes of conſequence.* Here *little* is an Adjective. *Ah! little think the gay.* Here *little* is an Adverb joined to the Verb *think.*

11. *Leſs things have produced great effects.* Here *leſs* is an Adjective. *The Engliſh are leſs volatile than the French.* Here *leſs* is an Adverb.

12. *He has the leaſt money, but the moſt credit.* Here *leaſt* and *moſt* are Adjectives. *The moſt learned are the leaſt conceited.* Here *moſt* and *leaſt* are Adverbs.

13. *This is a better houſe than yours.* Here *better* is an Adjective. *Your ſiſter works better than I.* Here *better* is an Adverb.

14. Adjectives are ſometimes improperly uſed as Adverbs; as, *He was extreme unwilling,* inſtead of *He was extremely unwilling. I ſhall endeavour to live ſuitable to a man in my ſtation. Suitable* ought to be *ſuitably,* as it is an Adverb joined to the Verb *to live.*

15. Adverbs uſually precede Adjectives and follow Verbs; as, *His ſtile is very correct. He writes well.* But if the Verb has an Auxiliary, the Adverb is generally placed between the Auxiliary and the Verb; as, *You have often deceived me.*

16. Two negatives when uſed inſtead of one, are very improper; Ex. *I can not eat none,* ought to be, *I can eat none,* or, *I can not eat any.*

17. *Ever* is to be uſed in preference to *never,* when joined to *ſo* and *ſuch*; as, *Though it were ever ſo good.*

18. *Whether or not* is preferable to *whether or no*; as, *Tell me whether you will go or not. Not* after *whether* may be omitted; as, *Tell me whether you will go.*

19. Adverbs like Adjectives are followed in the Comparative Degree by *than*; as, *He proceeds farther than he is authorized.*

20. Adverbs

20. Adverbs in the Superlative Degree are followed by *of* and a Subſtantive in the plural number; as, *The oak is rooted the moſt firmly of all trees.* The Adverb *moſt firmly* is in the Superlative Degree, and is followed by *of*, and the Subſtantive *trees* in the plural number.

21. Adverbs and Adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative Degrees admit the Definite Article before them; as, *The ſooner he comes. The moſt powerful of all.*

PREPOSITIONS.

1. PREPOSITIONS are words prefixed to Nouns, Pronouns, and Participles, to connect them in a ſentence.

2. Prepoſitions are known by their governing the Objective Caſe; as, *To me. For him. With them. Me, him,* and *them,* are Objective Caſes governed by the Prepoſitions *to, for,* and *with.*

3. The principal Prepoſitions are,

Above.	*At*	*Betwixt.*	*For.*	*On.*	*Up.*
About.	*Before.*	*Beyond.*	*From.*	*Over.*	*Upon.*
After.	*Behind.*	*By.*	*In.*	*Round,*	*Under.*
Againſt.	*Below.*	*Concerning.*	*Into.*	*Since.*	*With.*
Along.	*Beneath.*	*Down.*	*Near.*	*Through.*	*Within.*
Among.	*Beſide.*	*During.*	*Nigh.*	*To.*	*Without.*
Amongſt.	*Beſides.*	*Except.*	*Of.*	*Towards.*	
Around.	*Between.*	*Excepting.*	*Off.*		

OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

4. Prepoſitions are often uſed as Adverbs. *On ſeeing my friend:* here *on* is a Prepoſition ſet before the Participle *ſeeing. Pray, come on:* here *on* is an Adverb joined to the Verb *to come.*

5. *It crept up the wall:* here *up* is a Prepoſition. *He roſe up from his ſeat:* here *up* is an Adverb.

6. *It flew above the clouds beneath the ſun:* here *above* and *beneath* are Prepoſitions. *View the Heavens above and the earth beneath:* here *above* and *beneath* are Adverbs.

7. *He ran about the court along the wall:* here *about* and *along* are Prepoſitions. *He looked about, and then lay along:* here *about* and *along* are Adverbs.

8. *You may grow warm by walking on ſnow:* here *by* and *on* are Prepoſitions. *He threw it by when evening came on:* here *by* and *on* are Adverbs.

9. *In* is ſet before countries, and likewiſe before cities or large towns when ſituated in the country we are in; as, *He lives in France, in London,* or *in Gloceſter.*

10. *At* is ſet before ſingle houſes, villages, and before cities ſituated in foreign countries; as, *He lived at Pan's Lodge, at Hackney,* or *at Paris.*

11. We ſay *we are diſappointed of a thing* when we cannot get it; and *diſappointed in it* when we have it, and it does not anſwer our expectations.

12. Such Verbs as are uſed either with or without a Prepoſition indiſcriminately, ought to be uſed in preference without the Prepoſition; as, *accept,* not *accept of. Admit,* not *admit of. Approve,* not *approve of. Addreſs,* not *addreſs to. Attain,* not *attain to.*

13. This preference is particularly eligible in the Paſſive Verb; as, *His preſent was accepted of by his friend,* is better expreſſed thus, *His preſent was accepted by his friend.*

14. Prepoſitions ſerve to increaſe the number of our Verbs by changing their meaning, the ſame Verb often admitting various ſignifications by having different Prepoſitions

ſitions joined to it. Ex. *To give up a project*, is to abandon it; but *to give into a project*, is to undertake it.

15. The Prepoſition is ſometimes prefixed to the Verb, making but one word with it; as, *to readmit, to refit, to outdo, to underſell, to undergo, to overrate*, &c. which are Verbs compounded of the Prepoſitions *re, out, under*, and *over*, prefixed to the Verbs *admit, fit, do, ſell, go*, and *rate*.——N. B. The Prepoſitions *re, con, pre, mis*, &c. are uſed only in the compoſition of words.

16. But the Prepoſition generally follows the Verb ſeparately; as, *to give over, to give out, to take off, to paſs by, to wink at*, &c. Theſe Verbs may be conſidered equally with the former as compound Verbs, though the Prepoſition may ſtand ſometimes at a diſtance from its Verb.

17. Prepoſitions may be placed either before the pronoun which they govern, or after the Verb or Adjective which they connect to the pronoun; as, *What can this be good for?* or, *For what can this be good? Whom did the people laugh at?* or, *At whom did the people laugh?* *

* This mode of ending the ſentence with a Prepoſition is an idiom to which our language is ſtrongly inclined; yet it ſeems to be ſtudiouſly avoided of late by many reſpectable authors; and indeed it is cenſured by one of our beſt grammarians.

It is ſaid to be a violent tranſpoſition; but perhaps untruly: for if we examine this idiom we ſhall find it to be perfectly conſiſtent with the greateſt ſimplicity of arrangement. The Prepoſition when thus placed, is always uſed to expreſs the relation which the word governed bears to the word governing; and it appears that to make the Prepoſition follow the word governing is as ſuitable to the genius of our language, as to place it before the word governed. It is true that the contrary cuſtom is obſerved in the learned languages; but this can never be urged as a rule in Engliſh grammar. The idiom in queſtion univerſally prevails in converſation, and is every where to be found in the writings of our beſt authors.

18. On ſome occaſions the ellipſis of the Pronoun and Prepoſition is very improper. The following ſentence; *He lamented the fatal miſtake the world had been ſo long in uſing ſilk worms*; is better expreſſed thus; *He lamented the fatal miſtake in which the world had been ſo long in uſing ſilk worms.*

19. Such ſentences as the following: *Theſe are purſuits which I was never inclined to at any period of my life*; are better expreſſed thus; *Theſe are purſuits to which I was never inclined at any period of my life.* By this amendment we avoid the inelegance of the Prepoſitions *to* and *at*, which meet together in the firſt Example.

20. Subſtantives and Adjectives derived from Verbs not followed by a Prepoſition generally require the Prepoſition *of* after them; thus, *To know a thing*; *the knowledge of a thing. To abhor a thing*; *the abhorrence of a thing. To cenſure others*; *cenſorious of others.*

21. But Subſtantives and Adjectives derived from Verbs that are followed by Prepoſitions require the ſame Prepoſitions after them that follow the Verbs from which they are formed; thus, *in compliance with your requeſt*, is proper becauſe we ſay, *to comply with a requeſt.*

22. Prepoſitions are invariably joined to the following Verbs and Adjectives, and to the Subſtantives and Adverbs derived from them, as may be ſeen in the few examples that follow:

23. *To accuſe, to acquit,* or *to convict a perſon of a crime.*

24. *To condeſcend to. To ſwerve from.*

25. *To derogate from. To detract from.*

26. *To devolve authority upon a perſon.*

27. *To die of illneſs,* or *of old age.*

28. *To die by ſome calamity or inſtrument.*

29. *To differ from a perſon in reſemblance.* 30. *To*

30. *To differ with a perſon,* that is, *to quarrel.*

31. *To intruſt a perſon with ſomething,* or, *to intruſt ſomething to another.*

32. *To lay hold,* or *take hold on a thing.*

33. *To ingratiate one's ſelf with a perſon.*

34. *To prevail on a perſon,* that is, *to perſuade.*

35. *To prevail over a perſon,* that is, *to overcome.*

36. *To think of a thing.*

37. *To value ourſelves upon ſome good quality.*

38. *To value others for ſome good quality.*

39. *Agreeable to, agreeably to.*

40. *Averſe to a thing. Averſion to a thing.*

41. *Conformable to. Conformably to.*

42. *Conſequent to or upon.*

43. *Conſiſtent with. Conſiſtently with.*

44. *Conſonant to. Conſonantly to.*

45. *Converſant with perſons and in things.*

CONJUNCTIONS.

1. CONJUNCTIONS are words that ſhew a connection between two ſentences, or that unite in a ſentence the different members of which it is compoſed.

2. Conjunctions are known by their connecting words without having a government of caſes.

3. The principal Conjunctions are,

Albeit.	*Even.*	*Nor.*	*Thereupon.*
Alſo.	*However.*	*Notwithſtanding.*	*Till, until,*
Although.	*If.*	*Or.*	*Unleſs.*
And.	*Leſt.*	*Otherwiſe.*	*Whereas.*
As.	*Likewiſe.*	*Than.*	*Whereupon.*
Becauſe.	*Moreover.*	*Though.*	*Whether.*
But.	*Namely.*	*Therefore.*	*Yet.*
Elſe.	*Nevertheleſs.*		

4. There-

4. *There is a mean in all things. Even virtue itſelf has its ſtated limits.* The Conjunction *even* ſhews the connection between theſe two ſentences.

5. *You ſhall have it, as you deſire it.* *As* is a Conjunction connecting the two phraſes, *You ſhall have it---you deſire it*, and forming them into one ſentence. Such Conjunctions may often begin the ſentence; Ex. *As you deſire it, you ſhall have it.*

OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

6. Many words belonging to the other parts of ſpeech are uſed as Conjunctions; particularly, *provided*, a Verb; *both*, an Adjective; *either, neither, that*, Pronouns; *before, ſince*, and *for*, which are Prepoſitions.

7. *He provided corn:* here *provided* is a Verb agreeing with its Nominative Caſe *he*. *I forgive, provided you repent:* here *provided* is a Conjunction connecting what goes before to what follows.

8. *Both houſes are ſold:* here *both* is an Adjective joined to the Subſtantive *houſes*. *I chooſe both to hear and ſee:* here *both* is a Conjunction joining with emphaſis the Verb *chooſe* to the Verbs *hear* and *ſee*.

9. *You ſhall have either horſe you like:* here *either* is a Pronoun Adjective. *He will either ſtay at home or go out:* here *either* is a Conjunction correſponding with *or*.

10. *I chooſe neither of the horſes:* here *neither* is a Pronoun Adjective. *I will neither give it nor keep it:* here *neither* is a Conjunction.

11. *Do it before me:* here *before* is a Prepoſition. *Do it before I come*: here *before* is a Conjunction.

12. *That* is a Pronoun when joined to a Subſtantive; as, *That book*; or when it can be changed into *who, whom*, or *which*; as, *The man that* (or *whom*) *I ſaw.*

The

[*The horſe that* (or *which*) *you ſold.* But on all other occaſions it is a Conjunction, ſerving to connect the different members of a ſentence; as, *I was ſorry to hear that you were ill.*

13. Conjunctions join the ſame caſes together; as, *He and ſhe and I,* not *He and her and I. It is between him and I,* is therefore faulty, for *I* ought to be in the Objective Caſe after *and,* becauſe *him* is an Objective Caſe before it. The Caſe that ought to follow Conjunctions is beſt known by compleating the ſentence. See Ellipſis 17. 18.

14. Grammarians allow an exception to this rule in the relative *who,* which is uſed in the Objective Caſe after the Conjunction *than* preceded by a Nominative; as, *He, than whom no man is wiſer, has ſaid it. He* is in the Nominative Caſe before *than,* and *whom* is in the Objective Caſe after it.

15. As Conjunctions always connect words of a like kind, as Subſtantives to Subſtantives, Verbs to Verbs, &c. they ought to be placed as near as poſſible to the words which they connect. In the following example the arrangement is erroneous: *Which neither have ſtorehouſe nor barn.* As *neither* does not refer to the Verb *have,* but to the Subſtantive *ſtorehouſe,* the ſentence ought to run thus; *Which have neither ſtorehouſe nor barn.*

16. Conjunctions, when not uſed ſingly, correſpond to Pronouns or to other Conjunctions. Ex. *Though* and *although* are followed by *yet* or *nevertheleſs*; as, *Although ſhe is young, yet ſhe is not handſome.* One of theſe Conjunctions may be omitted; as, *Though ſhe is young, ſhe is not handſome*; or, *She is young, yet ſhe is not handſome.*

17. *Whether* is followed by *or.* Ex. *Whether you or I.*

18. *Either*

18. *Either* by *or*. *Either this book or that.* But in poetry *or* is uſed for *either*; as,

Conſult the genius of the place in all,
That tells the waters or to riſe or fall.

19. *No* and *not* by *nor*. *It is not he nor ſhe.*

20. *Never* by *nor*. *Never ſee him nor hear of him.*

21. *Neither* by *nor*. *Neither you nor I ought to go.* But in poetry *nor* is uſed for *neither*; as,

But treat the goddeſs like a modeſt fair,
Nor over-dreſs, nor wholly leave her bare.

22. *As* by *as*. *As white as ſnow.*

23. *As* by *ſo*. *As is the prieſt, ſo are the people.*

24. *So* by *as* denoting compariſon. *Nothing is ſo beautiful in nature as truth in the mind.* On this occaſion *as* may be followed by an Infinitive Mood. Ex. *It lies ſo thick as to produce confuſion.*

25. The Pronoun *other* is followed by *than* or *but*. *I ſaw no other than*, or, *but him.*

26. *So* by *that*. *I was ſo tired that I fell aſleep.*

27. The Pronoun *ſuch* by *that*. *The noiſe produced ſuch a ſhock in my brain, that it diſſipated ths fumes of ſleep.*

28. *Such* by *as*. *Such a hiſtory as Hume's.*

29. *As* uſed ſingly often implies likeneſs or compariſon. *Be merciful as your father is merciful.*

30. *As* has often the ſignification of *while* or *when*. *And it came to paſs as he was teaching.* Sometimes it expreſſes *ſince* or *becauſe*. Ex. *You ſhall have it as you like it.*

31. *As*, after the Pronoun *ſuch*, may be ſaid to repreſent a Relative, and to ſupply the place of a Nominative or Objective Caſe. Ex. *Avoid ſuch actions as are diſagreeable. I hate ſuch men as you deſcribe.*

32. But *as* ſhould never be uſed in the ſenſe of a Relative except after *ſuch*. In the following example *as* is very

very improper; *The book as you lent me is loſt.* It ought to be, *The book that,* or *which, you lent me is loſt.*

33. A Relative ſhould not be uſed inſtead of *as* after *ſo.* The following ſentence is faulty; *There was no man ſo violent, who did not relent.* It ought to be either, *There was no man ſo violent as not to relent,* or, *There was no man how violent ſoever, who did not relent.*

34. The Relative *that* is improperly uſed inſtead of *ſuch* before *as. Were he truly that ſcarecrow, as he is commonly painted,* ought to be, *Were he truly ſuch a ſcarecrow, as he is commonly painted.*

INTERJECTIONS.

1. INTERJECTIONS are unconnected words in a ſentence that expreſs ſome ſudden emotion of the mind, and are followed by a note of admiration. Such are, *Oh! Ah! Alack! Alas! Huzza! Lo!* &c.

2. The above-mentioned may be called original Interjections, becauſe they are never uſed in any other meaning. But many of the other parts of ſpeech, when uſed to expreſs any ſudden paſſion, may become Interjections. Ex. *Heavens! Horrid! Amazing,* &c.

Observations and rules of syntax.

2. Interjections, when prefixed to the firſt and ſecond Perſonal Pronouns, ſeem to have a government of caſes, governing the firſt perſon in the Objective, and the ſecond in the Nominative Caſe; as, *Ah me! Oh me! Dear me! Ah thou wretch!*

Oh thou! that reigneſt in the higheſt Heavens!

ELLIPSIS

ELLIPSIS.

ELLIPSIS is the principal figure of grammar. By it we omit one or more words that are neceſſary for the grammatical conſtruction of a ſentence, though not for rendering it intelligible. This figure ought to be well underſtood by thoſe who learn grammar, for without a knowledge of it, few complex ſentences can be parſed.

The uſe of Ellipſis is to expreſs our thoughts conciſely. We ſhould however be ſo far cautious in uſing it, as not to obſcure the ſenſe of what we ſay.

EXAMPLES OF ELLIPSIS. 1. *A man and woman*; that is, if we ſupply the Ellipſis, *A man and a woman.* 2. *The day and year*, that is, *the day and the year.* 3. *A learned and good man*, that is, *A learned man and a good man.* 4. *The laws of God and man*, that is, *the laws of God and the laws of man.* 5. *This is a book of my friend's*, that is, *This is a book of my friend's books.* 6. *Neither of the families was favorable*, that is, *Neither family of the families was favorable.* 7. *Each of the men paid his ſhare*, that is, *Each man of the men paid his ſhare.* 8. *Each of us pays his reconing*, that is, *Each one of us pays his reconing*, 9. *When either of theſe two qualities is wanting*, that is, *When either quality of theſe two qualities is wanting.* 10. *The Kings ſat, each upon his throne*; that is, *The Kings ſat, each King upon his throne.* 11. *Neither of the women durſt ſhew her face*, that is, *Neither woman of the women durſt ſhew her face.* 12. *I love and fear him*, that is, *I love him and I fear him.* 13. *This is the man they hate*, that is, *This is the man whom they hate.* 14. *Theſe are the goods they bought*, that is, *Theſe are the goods which they bought.* 15.

In

In the poſture I lay, that is, *In the poſture in which I lay.* 16. *It was he the people laughed at*, that is, *It was he whom the people laughed at.* 17. *You are taller than I*, that is, *You are taller than I am.* 18. *You read better than ſhe*, that is, *You read better than ſhe reads.* 19. *Thou ſhalt return and obey the Lord*, that is, *Thou ſhalt return and thou ſhalt obey the Lord.* 20. *I have heard and ſeen him*, that is, *I have heard and I have ſeen him.* 21. *I have read that author, but you have not*, that is, *I have read that author but you have not read that author.* 22. *Speak and act wiſely*, that is, *Speak wiſely and act wiſely.* 23. *Give me ſome apples*, that is, *Give to me ſome apples.* 24. *He, you, they and I*, that is, *He and you and they and I.* 25. *He ſaid he would go*, that is, *He ſaid that he would go.* 26. *Neither friend nor foe has power to hurt me*; that is, *Neither friend has power to hurt me, nor foe has power to hurt me.* 27. *Either he or ſhe is to come*; that is, *Either he is to come, or ſhe is to come.* 28. *Either you or he comes to-day*; that is, *Either you come to-day, or he comes to-day.* 29. *Either he or you come to-day*; that is, *Either he comes to-day, or you come to-day.* 30. *Neither he nor I go*; that is, *Neither he goes nor I go.* 31. *Neither I nor he goes*; that is, *Neither I go nor he goes.* 32. *He is ſuppoſed to be rich*; that is, *He is ſuppoſed by the world to be rich.* 33. *It was thought that he would not recover*; that is, *It was thought by his friends that he would not recover.* 34. *I ſaw no other there but him*; that is, *I ſaw no other there, but I ſaw him there.* 35. *There was no one in the parlour but he*; that is, *There was no one in the parlour, but he was in the parlour.* 36. *It is more elegantly expreſſed by Solomon than him*; that is, *It is more elegantly expreſſed by Solomon than it is expreſſed by him.* 37. *You love her better than I*; that is, *You love her better than I love her.* 38. *You love her better than me*; that

is, *You love her better than you love me.* 39. *This is not ſuch wine as I uſed to have*; that is, *This is not ſuch wine as that wine was which I uſed to have.* 40. *They make ſo deep an impreſſion on the mind as is apt to bend it wholly one way:* that is, *They make ſo deep an impreſſion on the mind, as that the impreſſion is apt to bend it wholly one way.* 41. *He gave him ſo much wine as robbed him of his reaſon*; that is, *He gave to him ſo much wine, as that the wine robbed him of his reaſon.* 42. *Who calls?* anſwer *I*, that is, *I call.* 43. *Who ſaid ſo?* anſwer *We*; that is, *We ſaid ſo.* 44. *Who tore the book?* anſwer, *They*; that is, *They tore the book.* 45. *Who broke the glaſs?* anſwer *She*; that is, *She broke the glaſs.* 46. *Should I remember*; that is, *If I ſhould remember.*

Practical Exercises upon the principal Rules of Grammar.

SUCH of the following ſentences as are printed in italics, contain faulty expreſſions, which are to be corrected by the rules to which the figures refer. The ſentences not printed in italics ſerve as additional examples to thoſe rules of grammar, which ſeem to require further illuſtration. The figures direct to the paragraphs containing the rules. The examples followed by *or*, may be expreſſed both ways with equal propriety.

ARTICLES.

He is an young man. He was an hero. 5
An hiſtorian is blameable. An hundred pounds.
Such a union. They form a united body. 6
I will come in a hour. You have done me a honour.
She is a humourſome child. He died without a heir.
A hoſpital was founded by a honeſt man.

The

" *The ſafe retreat of health and peace,*
" *A humble cottage ſtood.*
It is like a tattered colours. He gave me many a thanks. 7

SUBSTANTIVES.

How many knifes are in the caſe. 10
Some Elfs. A number of loafs. Thiefs often carry ſtaff.
I ſaw ſeveral calfs. Many lifes were loſt.
The leafs are blown about. I ſaw three wolfs.
They did it themſelfs. Divide it in halfs.
Enquirys were made. I ſaw ſome ferrys. 11
The ladys gathered the cherrys. The citys of Greece.
I know ſome ploughmans and huſbandmans. 12
Gooſes are ſilly birds. The river is ten foot deep. 13
The Kings picture. A calfs head. A childs play thing. 21
The print of calves feet. A ladys fan. Childrens toys.
Here are ladies ruffles. A mans hat. Mens hats.
A deers ſkin. He buys deers horns.
I bought a ſciſſars and a ſnuffers. I want a tongs. 30.

PRONOUNS.

Doſt thou not perceive that all will be yours. 15
Your memory is good but thou doſt not exerciſe it.
Your ſiſter knows thy perverſeneſs.
My book fell into the fire and he was burnt. 18.
I ſaw but one bird and I ſhot her.
That houſe and is mine, and he is well built.
I loſt my cane. Find him for me. Here he is.
This pen is bad, ſhe muſt be mended.
I love the friend which has done me a kindneſs, tho' ſhe be guilty of faults whom I diſlike. 24
Theſe are the boys which were idle.

I ſee the man which met us yeſterday.
A nation who has done honour to literature.
The father which ſets bad example.
The perſon which I ſpeak of.
I like this houſes, but diſlike that houſes. 26
I have known him this ſix years.
I do not like theſe kind of triflers.
I never read thoſe ſort of books.
Liſten to no dictates but to that of truth.
I bought this ſciſſars, and that tongs, and that ſnuffers.
More rain falls in June and July than in December and January, but it makes a greater ſhew upon the earth in theſe than in thoſe months. 27
" In poets as true genius is but rare,
" True taſte as ſeldom is the critics' ſhare;
" Both muſt alike from Heaven derive their light,
" Theſe born to judge, as well as thoſe to write."
Give me them books. Obſerve them three perſons. 28
Do you know them men. Them are good ſciſſars.
Have you ſeen the man that called, or, &c. 29
The books that you require are loſt, or, &c.
He is the ſame man whom you ſaw before. 31
This is the ſame pen which I had yeſterday.
Have you ſeen the man and horſe which I met. 32
Envy not others their riches, or, &c. 34
He may have any of my two horſes. 35
It ſucceeds better than in any of the two former caſes.
I have two canes: he may have any of them.
The two Kings ſat either of them upon his throne. 36
Nadab and Abihu took either of them his cenſor.
Two men ignorant of one another's language. 37
Where two things are compared to one another.
Two opinions conſiſtent with one another.

Both

Both their characters are contraſted with one another.
The reſemblance of any two words to one another.
Several governments rivals of each other. 38
The people communicate their wants to each other.
A variety of ſoils may be diſtinguiſhed from each other.
The man that came laſt week, and who was ſick, went away this morning. 40
Men look with an evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think that their reputation obſcures them. 41

ADJECTIVES.

He is prettyer and happyer than I. The lovelyeſt child 6
The beautifulleſt flower. The ſplendideſt houſe. 7
One day. The great ones of the world. 13
He reckoned by tens and by twenties. 14
I will not deſtroy it for twenty's ſake.
The wiſe and prudent liſten to inſtruction. 15
The virtuous few. The vaſt immenſe of ſpace.
Of all the books here, mine has loſt fewer leaves. 19
This nation has of all others admitted fewer corruptions.
My book has the feweſt leaves torn of any book here. 21
He is the talleſt of any one here.
This vice enters deepeſt into the ſoul of any other. 24
This remedy may prove the ſureſt of any other.
Fame is of all other rewards the greateſt.
The moſt favourable circumſtance of all others.
Of the two nations, ours is the more powerful, or, &c. 25
He is a more wiſer man than you. 26
It was the moſt ſtrangeſt thing I ever ſaw.
The Duke of Milan and his more braver daughter.
After the moſt ſtraiteſt ſect have I lived.

Nothing is more ſweeter than liberty.
Of all things virtue is the moſt lovelieſt.
Taſte, when brought to its moſt perfect ſtate. 27
The extremeſt parts of the earth. A moſt univerſal cuſtom.
Whoſoever of you will be the chiefeſt.

VERBS.

He forgeteth. We are freting. They beged alms. 24
The child crys. He denys every thing. He is buryd. 25
Love, loveing. Drive, driveing. Smite, ſmiteing. 26
The hare is dieing. 27
The bird fled out of the window. 38
The bird is ſuppoſed to have fled home directly.
The bird fell after it had fled a little way.
The country people had flown to the town for ſafety.
The ſoldiers flew to their ſhips for protection.
Is that a good pen you have got. 39
This room is hanged with very pretty paper. 40
He hanged his whole houſe with green paper.
A man was hung for a robbery. They hung ſix men.
Where did you lay laſt night? I layed at home. 42
I have laid very uncomfortably laſt night.
Where ſhall we lay to-night? He lays at home.
Have you laid comfortably laſt night?
For him thus proſtrate at thy feet I lay.
He was laying in the ſun.
I have wrote. I had aroſe. I ſhall have went. 45
I ſhall have drove. You have ſtole ſomething.
We have choſe ſome good books. The hare was catched.
I have not drank wine lately. He has fell.
The wind has blew the leaves about.
I have gave away many of them.
You have hid my book behind the harpſichord.

Have

Have you ſaw your brother lately?
They have ſhewed him how to do it.
Has he ſpoke to you about it? He had ſtole fruit.
I had rather do ſo. I had rather walk than ride. 46
I had like to fall. They had like to quarrel.
It is wrote. I was aroſe. He will be drove. 47
It was broke and blew about by the wind.
The coach was drawed by ſix horſes.
She was forſook by all her acquaintance.
The water is almoſt froze. The ſheep were ſhore.
Are the knives grinded. My hat was ſoon wore.
The houſe was ſhook by the wind.
Some were ſmote with the ſword.
All the fruit ſhall not be ſtole out of my garden.
My book has been took and trod upon.
I am him. It was me who wrote the letter. 48
He ſaid it was not him. Is it her that calls?
It is not me that ſay ſo, but it is him.
It was not her that called, it was him.
Was it him that told you this news? Can it be him?
The people laughed at him. 70
He was laughed at by the people. 71
Nature revives at the approach of ſpring. 72
This good news revived him.
She works well. She has worked an apron.
He ſhook with fear. He ſhook his head.
The lottery is drawing. They are drawing the lottery. 73
Something is wanting. They are wanting ſomething.
A church is repairing. He is repairing a church.
Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah. 75
They vie charities with one another.
To agree ſacred with profane chronology.
We riſe a good deal of corn in England.

Laſt

Laſt year we roſe ſome onions.
No corn is riſen in that country.
The trees looks naked. All the leaves has fallen. 77
Parents governs, and children obeys. Alms is given.
Small miſtakes becomes great by frequent repetition.
Whatever you undertakes be emulous to excel.
Boys that is naughty neglects their learning.
They certainly deſerves correction.
You attends not to your ſtudies as ſhe do.
I waſt in town when you was. Thou ſhall go.
Is your friends in town? Is your brothers gone?
Was you at home yeſterday? My brother have fallen.
When you was moſt in earneſt. Amends was made.
The aſhes looks white. The ſciſſars is loſt.
You and I was at church yeſterday. 78
My brother and he diſputes about trifles.
Virtue and vice differs in their nature.
My brother and ſiſter plays together.
Is your brother and ſiſter at home?
Pride and meanneſs is inſeparable.
Innocence and happineſs dwells together.
Was John and William playing together.
The clergy is a large body of men, *or*, &c. 79
My people are fooliſh, they have not known me, *or*, &c.
Mankind is fond of trifles; *or*, &c.
Shame being loſt, all virtue is loſt. 80
" God from the Mount of Sinai, whoſe grey top
" Shall tremble, he deſcending, will himſelf,
" In thunder, lightning, and loud trumpets' ſound,
" Ordain them laws."
Tó walk in the fields is pleaſant; *or*, &c. 81
It was at the royal feaſt for Perſia won. 82
'Tis theſe that early taint the female ſoul.

It

It pleaſes me. It grieves me. It rejoices me. 84

All theſe, ſaid he, are yours. 85

Fallen, fallen is Babylon the great city. 86

Great is Diana of the Epheſians.

Do as I order thee. Honour your parents. 87

What have you there? What ſays ſhe? 88

Have you ſeen him? What has he done? 89

We ſaw thou. Do you know ſhe? 90

I like they very well. They fear he, but love I.

He ſees I am not idle. I fear he will hurt himſelf. 92

The rich he ſends away empty. 94

The maſter who I ſaw. Whoever you find. 96

The woman who you ſpoke to is gone. Whoſoever you meet.

Who have you ſeen in the parlour.

Whoſoever I obſerve. Who have you called.

They continue with me now three days. 98

I remember him theſe many years.

He is abſent theſe ſix months paſſed.

Ye will not come to me that ye might have life. 100

To ſpeak the truth we are not faultleſs, *or*, &c. 106

I have a houſe to build, *or*, &c. 107

Is there a God to ſwear by? None to pray to? *or*, &c.

He is better than I expected to have found him. 108

I wiſhed yeſterday to have ſeen you.

She ſeems to have a good education. 109

The middle ſtation of life ſeems to be the moſt advantageouſly ſituated for the gaining of wiſdom. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the ſupplying of our wants, and riches upon the enjoying of our ſuperfluities, *or*, &c. 111 & 112

Pride is a betraying of a weak mind.

People diſlike the impreſſing ſeamen.

Prepare

Prepare the way by preaching of repentance.
I ſaw the book, and I ſuppoſe you have. 121
Take the ſame meaſures for your cure that he has.
I wiſh he may do as I have.

ADVERBS.

He is happyly ſituated. She ſings merryly. 3
He was extreme unwilling. Xenophon ſays expreſs. 14
I live ſuitable to a man in my ſtation.
O let not mine enemies triumph over me ungodly.
Grammar teaches us to ſpeak proper.
Your ſiſter has done excellent well, you indifferent well, and your brother tolerable well.
He behaved conformable to that bleſſed example.
The falſe aſſertions of this author are eaſier detected.
I have written agreeable to your deſire.
I can never think ſo mean of him.
His ſermons are exceeding well written.
One author ſpeaks nobler and loftier than another.
I cannot eat none. I will not do ſo no more. 16
Though it were never ſo good. 17
Though he had never ſuch opportunities.
Tell me whether you will go or no. 18
The oak is rooted the moſt firmly of any tree. 20
I can throw the fartheſt of any one here. 26
It grows the quickeſt of any tree in the foreſt.

PREPOSITIONS.

It fell off the table over the chair. 4
The dog ran off and went over to you.
It trickled down the wall within doors.
The rain pours down, ſtay within.
They have diſappointed me in the book I wanted. 11

I have read it, and am diſappointed of it.
He accepted of my preſent. 12
We cannot attain to perfection.
His preſent was accepted of by his friend.
The magiſtrates were addreſſed to by the townſmen.
This plan was approved of by the council.
Whom ſhall I give this to, *or*, &c. 17
Whoſe crimes did he wink at, *or*, &c.
He lamented the fatal miſtake the world had been ſo long in uſing ſilk-worms. 18
Theſe are purſuits which I never was inclined to at any period of my life. 19
In compliance to the declaration of the parliament. 21
He was accuſed for ſeveral crimes. 23
We love humility and condeſcenſion for others. 24
Swerve not againſt the commandments of the Lord.
He will think it a derogation of his credit. 25
We accuſe fame of detraction againſt her praiſe.
He devolved to the Duke the care of affairs. 26
He died by old age, and not by a fever. 27
The men ſhall die of the ſword; or of famine. 28
Have courage to lay hold of this occaſion. 32
He ingratiated himſelf to his uncle. 33
Prevail with ſome judicious friend to hear you. 34
He prevailed againſt all his enemies. 35
We ought to think well on what we do. 36
That is a thing I never thought on.
He values himſelf upon his learning. 37
I value my friend for his ſincerity. 38
I have written agreeably with your deſire. 39
He was averſe from all advice. 40
We are born with an averſion from ſlavery.
He acted conformably with his profeſſions. 41

Puniſhment

Puniſhment ſhould be conſequent after guilt. 42
A fool is not long conſiſtent to himſelf. 43
A wiſe man acts conſonantly with reaſon. 44
He is more converſant in books than with men. 42

CONJUNCTIONS.

I ſhall be hurt if I fall, *or*, &c. 5
A liar is not believed though he ſpeak the truth, *or*, &c.
I came ſince morning. Keep it ſince you like it. 6
Stay for me. Make haſte, for I am tired.
He and her and I. It was between him and I. 13
She and him and I will read alternately.
He taught both her and I to read.
It is among you and they. You ſat between her and he.
I ſaw him and ſhe together.
" Which when Beelzebub perceived, than whom,
" Satan except, none higher ſat." 14
Which neither have ſtorehouſe nor barn. 15
Indeed I neither ſaw him nor her.
I have not ſtirred, or have I ſpoken. 19
I will give neither the one or the other. 21
Death ſpares neither age, or youth, or merit, or rank.
It is ſo white as ſnow. 22
This is not near as beautiful as that. 24
I am ſo tired as I cannot ſpeak. 26
The book as you lent me is loſt. 32
The man as I met is a ſtranger.
There was no man ſo violent, who did not relent. 33
There was no man ſo brave who had not ſome apprehenſion.
Were he truly that ſcarecrow as he is commonly painted. 34
Were he that rogue as you deſcribe him.

ELLIPSIS.

N. B. To correct the following ſentences, ſee them properly expreſſed in Ellipſis, as directed by the figures.

Neither of the families were favourable. 6

Each of the men paid their ſhare. 7

Each of us pay our reconing. 8

Every one of the rogues were hanged.

Every one of them drew their ſwords

When either of theſe two qualities are wanting. 9

Neither of the counſellors were to be preſent.

The Kings ſat, each upon their throne. 10

Let each eſteem others better than themſelves.

He delivered every drove by themſelves.

No one ought to neglect their health.

Neither of the women durſt ſhew their faces. 11

You are taller than me. 17

You read better than her. They go faſter than us. 18

She behaves better than them.

Neither friend nor foe have power to hurt me. 26

What the heart or the imagination dictate.

Either his gratitude or his compaſſion were roufed.

Either he or ſhe are to come. 27

I ſaw no other there but he. 34

There was no one in the parlour but him. 35

Who calls? Anſwer, *me.* 42

Who ſaid ſo? Anſwer, *us.* 43

Who tore the book? Anſwer, *them.* 44

Who broke the glaſs? Anſwer, *her.* 45

Should I remember, *or*, &c. 46

Did I but know his intention, *or*, &c.

Were I to write, *or*, &c.

Wert thou to be praiſed undeſervedly, *or*, &c.

A SENTENCE PARSED.

Honour and ſhame from no condition riſe;
Act well your part, there all the honour lies.

Honour A Subſtantive, ſingular number, neuter gender, nominative caſe to the verb *riſe*.

And A Conjunction connecting the Subſtantives *honour* and *ſhame*.

Shame A Subſtantive, ſingular number, neuter gender, nominative caſe to the verb *riſe*.

From A Prepoſition ſet before the Subſtantive *condition*.

No An Adjective joined to the Subſtantive *condition*.

Condition A Subſtantive, ſingular number, neuter gender.

Riſe A neuter Verb from the irregular Verb *to riſe*. Indicative mood, preſent tenſe, third perſon plural, agreeing with its two nominative caſes *honour* and *ſhame*.

Act An active Verb. Imperative Mood, ſecond perſon plural, agreeing with its nominative caſe *you* underſtood.

Well An Adverb joined to the verb *act*.

Your Genitive caſe, plural number of the perſonal pronoun *thou*.

Part A Subſtantive, ſingular number, neuter gender, objective caſe after the active verb *act*.

There An Adverb of place joined to the verb *lies*.

All An Adjective joined to the Subſtantive *honour*.

The The definite Article.

Honour A Subſtantive, ſingular number, neuter gender, nominative caſe to the verb *lies*.

Lies A neuter Verb, indicative mood, preſent tenſe, third perſon ſingular, agreeing with its nominative caſe *honour*.

A CON-

A

CONCISE TREATISE

OF

RHETORIC.

1. GRAMMAR teaches the proper arrangement and connection of words, and ſhews how they are united in a ſentence. Rhetoric is more concerned in the general meaning and import of a ſentence than in the words compoſing it. When we ſpeak the language of paſſion or of a warm imagination, we depart from the ſober ſtile of converſation, and adopt bolder and more animated expreſſions. Theſe expreſſions of paſſion, which faithfully tranſmit to others the emotions we feel, and which are originally taught by nature alone, have been collected by Rhetoricians and formed into a Syſtem. This Syſtem we call Rhetoric.

2. Rhetoric therefore teaches us to diſtinguiſh the different modes of ſpeech by which energy of paſſion or warmth of imagination is peculiarly expreſſed, and to claſs them under the denominations of tropes and figures. Theſe denominations are diſtinguiſhed from each other by Rhetoricians, who in their diviſions of this ſcience have deſcended to a minuteneſs, which can be deſirable only to the Critic. As our plan is confined to what may be of uſe to the young beginner we ſhall entirely omit the diſtinction between tropes and figures, as the latter term fully anſwers the purpoſes of both; and ſhall deſcribe only ſuch Rhe-

torical figures as may be eaſily remembered by the young ſcholar. Thoſe, who are deſirous of a more extenſive knowledge of this ſcience, may conſult Dr. Blair's lectures on Rhetoric, or Mr. Walker's Rhetorical grammar.

3. The principle figures of Rhetoric are, SIMILE, METAPHOR, ALLEGORY, IRONY, HYPERBOLE, ANTITHESIS, CLIMAX, VISION, PERSONIFICATION, APOSTROPHE, INTERROGATION, EXCLAMATION, and AMPLIFICATION.

SIMILE.

1. A Simile or Compariſon is a figure by which we compare one thing to another for the ſake of ornament or illuſtration.

2. In the following Simile a virtuous man ſlandered is compared to a diamond obſcured by ſmoke, and the circumſtances of the reſemblance are pointed out: *A virtuous man ſlandered by evil tongues is like a diamond obſcured by ſmoke; which is clouded for the preſent, but when wiped and cleared from ſtain is as beautiful as before.*

3. Milton compares the fallen angels to oaks or pines blaſted by lightning:

" Yet faithful how they *(fallen angels)* ſtood,
" Their glory withered: as when heaven's fire
" Hath ſcathed the foreſt-oaks or mountain pines;
" With ſinged top their ſtately growth though bare
" Stands on the blaſted heath."

4. The ſame poet compares Satan, in his ſuperiority over the other fallen angels, to a tower. He afterwards compares him in his degraded and ruined ſtate, to the Sun obſcured by a miſt or eclipſed by the Moon:

" He *(Satan)* above the reſt
" In ſhape and geſture proudly eminent,

" Stood

" Stood like a tower; his form had not yet loſt
" All her original brightneſs, nor appeared
" Leſs than Arch-angel ruined, and th' exceſs
" Of glory obſcured; as when the Sun new riſen,
" Looks through the horizontal miſty air,
" Shorn of his beams; or from behind the Moon
" In dim eclipſe diſaſtrous twilight ſheds
" On half the nations, and with fear of change
" Perplexes Monarchs; darkened ſo, yet ſhone
" Above them all the Arch-Angel."

5. The flattering hopes we form of futurity are compared to our viſible horizon; which, whatever way we turn and how far ſoever we go, ſtill keeps at the ſame diſtance from us:

" But I, not deſtined ſuch delights to ſhare,
" My prime of life in wandering ſpend and care!
" Impelled with ſteps unceaſing to purſue,
" Some fleeting good, that mocks me with the view;
" That, like the circle bounding earth and ſkies,
" Allures from far, yet as I follow, flies."

GOLDSMITH.

6. Pope compares the increaſing fame of the antient poets to rivers, which increaſe as they approach the ſea:

" Hail bards triumphant! born in happier days,
" Immortal heirs of univerſal praiſe;
" Whoſe honours with increaſe of ages grow,
" As ſtreams roll down enlarging as they flow."

7. A pious mind agitated with doubts, is compared to a calm lake diſturbed by a ſtone thrown into it:

" A life ſo ſacred, ſuch ſerene repoſe,
" Seemed heaven itſelf till one ſuggeſtion roſe,
" That vice ſhould triumph, virtue vice obey;
" This ſprung ſome doubt of providence's ſway.

" So when a ſmooth expanſe receives impreſt,
" Calm nature's image on its watry breaſt,
" Down bend the banks, the trees depending grow,
" And ſkies beneath with anſwering colours glow;
" But if a ſtone the gentle ſea divide,
" Swift ruffling circles curl on every ſide;
" And glimmering fragments of a broken ſun,
" Banks, trees, and ſkies, in thick diſorder run."

PARNEL.

METAPHOR.

1. A metaphor is a compariſon expreſſed without the ſigns of compariſon. When we ſay of a great Miniſter that *he upholds the State like a pillar ſupporting an edifice*, we uſe a compariſon: but when we ſay of ſuch a Miniſter that *he is the pillar of the ſtate*, we ſpeak in a metaphor and *pillar* is the metaphorical word.

2. When we ſay, *Charles the twelfth was the lion of the North*, we ſpeak metaphorically and call him a lion, becauſe he reſembled a lion in bravery.

3. In the following lines life is called a ſtream, becauſe like a ſtream it is for ever paſſing; and it is ſaid to abound in tempeſts, becauſe our lives are ruffled with misfortunes as water is by a tempeſt:

" A troop came next, who crowns and armour wore,
" And proud defiance in their looks they bore;
" For thee, (*Fame*) they cried, amidſts alarms and ſtriſe,
" We ſailed in tempeſts down the ſtream of life." POPE.

4. In the following examples the metaphorical words are marked: *To the faithful, death is the* gate *of life.* —— *She was covered with the* light *of beauty*; *but her heart was the* houſe *of pride.* —— *Young men are ſubtle arguers*; *the* cloak *of honour covers all their faults.* —— *Men's evil manners live in* braſs; *their virtues we write in* water.

5. ——

5. ——————" Think that time;
" Has *golden* minutes, if diſcreetly ſeized."
THOMPSON.

6. " Perhaps even Britain's utmoſt ſhore,
" Shall ceaſe *to bluſh* with ſtrangers' gore." POPE.

7. " For never can true reconcilement grow,
" Where *wounds* of deadly hate have pierced ſo deep."
MILTON.

8. " Now waved their *fiery* ſwords, and in the air
" Made horrid circles: two broad *ſuns* their ſhields
" Blazed oppoſite. MILTON.

9. " Together both, ere the high lawns appeared
" Under the opening *eye-lids* of the morn,
" We drove afield. MILTON.

10. But the word Metaphor is ſometimes uſed in a looſer and more extended ſenſe than is allowed by the definition given above. It may often mean the application of a term in any figurative ſignification, whether the figure be founded on reſemblance or ſome other relation which two objects have to each other. For inſtance, when we ſay, *his grey hairs were brought with ſorrow to the grave*, the words *grey hairs* are uſed metaphorically inſtead of old age. And when we ſay, *I have lived forty ſummers*, we metaphorically uſe ſummers inſtead of years, becauſe a ſummer is a part of a year. Of this kind alſo are ſuch Metaphors, as, *Mars rages*, inſtead of *war rages: read Horace*, for *read the works of Horace: An orator's tongue* (Eloquence) *is a ſtrong defence: Steel* (the ſword) *overturned the walls of Troy*. We ſay, *cold death*, becauſe death makes cold: and *he ſeized the ſceptre*, that is the government, becauſe the *ſceptre* repreſents royal power. *The bottle enlivens*, that is, the wine contained in the bottle. In this ſenſe the figures called *Metonymy* and *Synecdoche* are

compre-

comprehended in the claſs of Metaphors. A further example of each follows:

11. "Unleſs you mean my griefs and killing fears,
"Should ſtretch me out at your relentleſs feet." POPE.

In this example of the ſynecdoche, the feet, a part of the perſon, are put for the whole perſon.

12. "Again Ulyſſes veiled his penſive head,
"Again unmanned a ſhower of ſorrow ſhed. POPE.

In this example of the metonymy, ſorrow, which is the cauſe of tears, is put for tears.

ALLEGORY.

1. An allegory is a continuation of ſeveral metaphors, ſo connected in ſenſe as to form a kind of parable or fable.

2. We have a very fine allegory in the 80th pſalm, where the people of Iſrael are repreſented under the image of a vine---*Thou haſt brought a vine out of Egypt, thou haſt caſt out the heathen, and planted it. Thou preparedſt room before it, and didſt cauſe it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the ſhadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars. She ſent out her boughs into the ſea, and her branches into the river. Why haſt thou broken down her hedges, ſo that all they who paſs by the way do pluck her? The boar out of the wood doth waſte it; and the wild beaſt of the field doth devour it. Return, we beſeech thee O God of hoſts, look down from heaven, and behold and viſit this vine.*

3. In the following allegory the different ages of life are pointed out by the different ſeaſons of the year:

"Behold fond man!
"See here thy pictured life; paſs ſome few years,
"Thy flowering *ſpring*, thy *ſummer*'s ardent ſtrength,
"Thy ſober *autumn* fading into age:

"And

" And pale concluding *winter* comes at laſt,
" And ſhuts the ſcene." THOMPSON.

4. In the following allegory life is compared to a voyage:

" Thus, thus I ſteer my bark, and ſail
" On even keel with gentle gale;
" At helm I make my reaſon ſit,
" My crew of paſſions all ſubmit.
" If dark and bluſtering prove ſome nights,
" Philoſophy puts forth her lights;
" Experience holds the cautious glaſs,
" To ſhun the breakers as I paſs;
" And frequent throws the wary lead,
" To ſee what dangers may be hid.
" Though pleaſed to ſee the dolphins play,
" I mind my compaſs and my way."

5. In the following allegory taken from fables for the female ſex, a woman who has deviated from the paths of honor is imaged by a bark, which, having departed from its deſtined courſe, is caught in a tempeſtuous ocean where it founders:

" But woman no redemption knows;
" The wounds of honour never cloſe.
" Tho' diſtant every hand to guide,
" Nor ſkilled in life's tempeſtuous tide,
" If once her feeble bark recede,
" Or deviate from the courſe decreed,
" In vain ſhe ſeeks the friendly ſhore,
" Her ſwifter folly flies before;
" The circling ports againſt her cloſe,
" And ſhut the wanderer from repoſe;
" Till, by conflicting waves oppreſſed,
" Her foundering pinnace ſinks to reſt."

6. A female orphan, relieved from diſtreſs and educated with

with tenderneſs, but afterwards ſeduced from the paths of virtue, is thus allegorically deſcribed as a flower:

" You took her up a little, tender flower,
" Juſt ſprouted on a bank, which the next froſt,
" Had nipped; and with a careful loving hand,
" Tranſplanted her into your own fair garden,
" Where the ſun always ſhines: there long ſhe flouriſhed,
" Grew ſweet to ſenſe, and lovely to the eye;
" Till at laſt a cruel ſpoiler came,
" Cropt this fair roſe, and rifled all its ſweetneſs,
" Then caſt it like a loathſome weed away."

ORPHAN, Act. 4.

7. Allegories were a favorite method of delivering inſtruction in antient times; for what we call fables or parables are no other than allegories; where by words and actions attributed to beaſts or inanimate objects, the diſpoſitions of men are figured; and what we call the moral, is the unfigured ſenſe or meaning of the allegory. An enigma or riddle is alſo a ſpecies of allegory; one thing repreſented or imaged by another, but purpoſely wrapped up under ſo many circumſtances as to be rendered obſcure. In the ſpectator we have examples of allegories very happily executed.

IRONY.

1. Irony is a figure in which one extreme is ſignified by its oppoſite; or where we ſpeak of one thing and deſign the contrary, in order to give the greater force and poignancy to our meaning.

2. This figure owes much of its force to the voice and manner of the ſpeaker. When we commend ironically a notorious cheat, we ſay, ſneeringly of him, *O he is a mighty honeſt man truly!* This figure is more adapted to converſation

tion or burleſque writings than to compoſitions of a ſerious nature.

HYPERBOLE.

1. Hyperbole or exaggeration, in order to give us the higheſt idea of an object, magnifies it beyond its natural dimenſions.

2. For inſtance, when the poet wiſhes to impreſs us with a very high idea of his hero's ſwiftneſs, he ſays, *Achilles was ſwifter than a ſtag.* This ſentence is not to be conſidered as ſtrictly true: we are only to underſtand from it that Achilles was uncommonly ſwift. We muſt conſider the following examples, in ſome of which the hyperbolic terms are diſtinguiſhed by the print, as entitled to the ſame indulgence: *Her complection was fairer than* ſnow; *though her hair was blacker than a* raven.

3. " On either ſide two rocks enormous riſe,
" Whoſe ſummits threaten to *invade the ſkies.*" POPE.

4. In Pope's Temple of Fame conquerors are ſuppoſed to addreſs the Goddeſs as follows:
" For thee, whole nations filled with flames and blood,
" And ſwam to empire through the purple flood."

5. Eloiſa in the following lines enjoins Abelard to keep at a diſtance from her:
" No, fly me, fly me, far as pole from pole,
" Riſe Alps between us, and whole oceans roll." POPE.

6. The effects of muſic are thus deſcribed:
" Here Orpheus ſings; trees moving to the ſound
" Start from their roots, and form a ſhade around."
POPE.

7. The powerful effects of poetry are thus deſcribed:
" The poet gives my breaſt a thouſand fears,
" Can make me feel each paſſion that he feigns;
" Enrage,

" Enrage, compoſe, with more than magic art,
" With pity and with terror tear my heart;
" And ſnatch me o'er the earth or through the air,
" To Thebes, to Athens, when he will and where."

8. " So Zembla's rocks, the beauteous work of froſt,
" Riſe white in air, and glitter o'er the coaſt;
" Pale ſuns, unfelt, at diſtance roll away,
" And on th' impaſſive ice the lightnings play;
" *Eternal* ſnows the growing maſs ſupply,
" Till the bright mountains prop the incumbent ſky."

POPE.

ANTITHESIS.

1. Antitheſis is the contraſt or oppoſition of two objects in a ſentence.

2. In the following example the heavens, the moon, and ſtars, are ſet in oppoſition to man. *When I conſider the heavens, the work of thy fingers, the moon and the ſtars which thou haſt ordained, What is man that thou art mindful of him, and the ſon of man that thou viſiteſt him?*

3. In the following paſſage the words *increaſe his ſtores*, are ſet in oppoſition to the words *diminiſh his deſires:*—— *If you ſeek to make a man rich, ſtudy not ſo much to increaſe his ſtores as to diminiſh his deſires.*

4. " Who ſees with equal eye, as God of all,
" A hero periſh, or a ſparrow fall;
" Atoms or ſyſtems into ruin hurled,
" And now a bubble burſt, and now a world." POPE.

In this paſſage a ſparrow, atoms, and bubble are contraſted with hero, ſyſtems, and world.

5. " This knows my puniſher; therefore as far
" From granting he, as I from begging peace."

MILTON.

6. " So

6. " So ſpake the ſeraph Abdiel, faithful found;
" Among the faithleſs, faithful only he."

MILTON.

7. " Good-nature and good ſenſe muſt ever join;
" To err is human; to forgive, divine."

POPE.

8. This figure often ſurpriſes us by the unexpected contraſt of contradictory ideas, which it aptly brings together; ſuch are, *ſalutary wounds*; *healthful diſeaſes*; *happy pains*; *profitable loſſes*; *bitter ſweets* and *regular confuſion*. Such are likewiſe the following examples, in ſome of which the contraſts are remarkably bold.

9. *The very ſorrows of a pious man are pleaſant, his infirmities are wholeſome, his wants enrich him, and his diſgraces adorn him.*

10. " Give man earth's empire (if no more)
" He's beggared and undone;
" Impriſoned in unbounded ſpace,
" Benighted by the ſun." WATTS.

In this ſtanza the empire of the world, unbounded ſpace, and the ſun are ſet in oppoſition to ruin, impriſonment, and darkneſs.

11. In the following example Adam ſuppoſes ſolitude the beſt ſociety, becauſe it diſpoſes us to enjoy ſociety:

" If much converſe perhaps
" Thee ſatiate, to ſhort abſence I could yield:
" For ſolitude is ſometimes beſt ſociety,
" And ſhort retirement urges ſweet return."

MILTON.

12. " I underſtood not that a grateful mind,
" By owing owes not, but ſtill pays; at once
" Indebted and diſcharged." MILTON.

13. " But ſee the man, who ſpacious regions gave,
" A waſte for beaſts, himſelf denied a grave;
" Stretched on the land his ſecond hope ſurvey,
" At once the chaſer, and at once the prey." POPE.

William the conqueror diſpeopled a large tract of country which he converted into foreſt land. He was buried in Normandy. His ſecond ſon William Rufus was accidentally ſhot through the heart, as he was hunting in the foreſt incloſed by his father, and is therefore in theſe lines called the chaſer and the prey.

CLIMAX.

1. Climax or gradation is a figure by which we riſe from one circumſtance to another, till our idea is raiſed to the higheſt.

2. We have an example of this figure in the following ſentence, where the gradation begins with the infant and ends with the chriſtian: *What is every year of a wiſe man's life but a cenſure or critic on the paſt? Thoſe, whoſe date is the ſhorteſt, live long enough to laugh at one half of it: the boy deſpiſes the infant, the man the boy, the philoſopher both, and the chriſtian all.*

3. *There is no enjoyment of property without government, no government without a magiſtrate, no magiſtrate without obedience, and no obedience where every one acts as he pleaſes.* In this climax the ſeveral ſteps riſe naturally out of one another, and are cloſely connected by the ſenſe.

VISION.

1. Viſion is a figure by which, in the warmth of emotion, we deſcribe a thing as preſent that is paſt, or that we ſuppoſe might have happened.

2. Cicero

2. Cicero in his ſpeech againſt Catiline repreſents as preſent the deſtruction that would have enſued, had Catiline and the other conſpirators ſucceeded in their deſign of ſetting fire to the city of Rome: *I think I behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, ſuddenly involved in one conflagration. I ſee before me heaps of ſlaughtered citizens lying unburied in the midſt of their ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus riſes to my view, while with a ſavage joy he is triumphing in your miſeries.*

3. " Ye ſacred Nine! that all my ſoul poſſeſs,
" Whoſe raptures fire me, and whoſe viſions bleſs,
" Bear me, O bear me to ſequeſtered ſcenes,
" To bowery mazes, and ſurrounding greens.
" I ſeem thro' conſecrated walks to rove,
" I hear ſoft muſic die along the grove;
" Led by the ſound, I roam from ſhade to ſhade,
" By godlike poets venerable made." POPE.

In this paſſage the poet deſcribes the inſpiration of the muſes and its effects on his mind, as if they were actually preſent to his feelings.

4. " To either India ſee the merchant fly,
" Scared at the ſpectre of pale poverty;
" See him with pains of body, pangs of ſoul,
" Burn thro' the tropic, freeze beneath the pole."
POPE.

5. We have an example of this figure in Pope's Elegy to the memory of an unfortunate lady. The paſſage is as follows:

" What beconing ghoſt, along the moon-light ſhade,
" Invites my ſteps and points to yonder glade?

" 'Tis ſhe — but why that bleeding boſom gored,
" Why dimly gleams the viſionary ſword?
" O ever beauteous, ever friendly, tell,
" Is it in heaven a crime to love too well?

POPE.

6. We may perhaps plead this figure as an authority for uſing preſent inſtead of paſt time when we wiſh to enliven what we ſay. In the following ſentence the two laſt lines are in the preſent tenſe, although the preceding ones ſpeak of paſt time:

" In various talk th' inſtructive hours they paſt,
" Who gave the ball, or paid the viſit laſt;
" One ſpeaks the glory of the Britiſh Queen,
" And one deſcribes a charming Indian ſcreen."

POPE.

PERSONIFICATION.

1. Perſonification is a figure by which we attribute life and the uſe of reaſon to inanimate objects, and irrational creatures.

2. Grammar aſſigns the maſculine and feminine genders to beings only that are male and female; as, *he* agrees with *a man*, *ſhe* with *a woman*, &c.; and the neuter gender to inanimate things; as, *it* agrees with *a mountain* or *a tree*. But when we uſe this figure we beſtow life on inanimate things, and give them either the maſculine or feminine gender.

3. In the following example, *the mountains*, *the water*, and *the deep* are perſonified and ſuppoſed like rational creatures to be aſtoniſhed at the greatneſs of God and to be ſenſible of his power. The deep is of the maſculine gender. *The mountains ſaw thee, O Lord, and they trembled; the*

the overflowing of the water paſſed by; the deep uttered his voice, and lifted up his hands on high.

4. Muſic is perſonified, and is of the feminine gender:

" If in the breaſt tumultuous joys ariſe,
" *Muſic* her ſoft aſſuaſive voice applies."

POPE.

5. " So ſaying (Eve) her raſh hand in evil hour,
" Forth reaching to the fruit, ſhe plucked, ſhe ate;
" *Earth* felt the wound; and *nature* from her ſeat
" Sighing, through all her works gave ſigns of woe,
" That all was loſt."

MILTON.

6. " Now gentle *gales*
" Fanning their odoriferous wings, diſpenſe
" Native perfumes, and whiſper whence they ſtole
" Thoſe balmy ſpoils."

MILTON.

7. " Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund *day*,
" Stands tip-toe on the miſty mountain-top."

SHAKES.

8. " But look, *the morn* in ruſſet mantle clad,
" Walks o'er the dew of yon high eaſtward hill."

SHAK.

9. " At his (God's) command th' uprooted *hills* retired
" Each to his place: they heard his voice and went
" Obſequious; *heaven* his wonted face renewed,
" And with freſh flowerets *hill* and *valley* ſmiled."

MILTON.

10. " Fair *liberty*, Britannia's goddeſs, rears
" Her chearful head, and leads the golden years.

POPE.

11. " But o'er the twilight groves and duſky caves,
" Long ſounding iles, and intermingled graves,
" Black *melancholy* ſits and round her throws,
" A death-like ſilence and a dread repoſe." POPE.

12 " He aſked the *waves* and aſked the felon *winds*,
" What dire miſhap had doomed this gentle ſwain.
MILTON.

13. " The balmy *Zephirs*, ſilent ſince her death,
" Lament the ceaſing of a ſweeter breath;
" No more the *ſtreams* their murmurs ſhall forbear,
" A ſweeter muſic than their own to hear;
" Her fate is whiſpered by the gentle *breeze*,
" And told in ſighs to all the trembling *trees*;
" The trembling *trees*, in every plain and wood,
" Her fate remurmur to the ſilver *flood*;
" The *winds*, the *trees*, and *floods* her death deplore,
" Daphne, our grief! our glory! now no more."
POPE.

APOSTROPHE.

1. Apoſtrophe is a figure by which we addreſs abſent perſons, or inanimate objects which we perſonify. This is the boldeſt and moſt animated figure of Rhetoric.

2. In the ſacred ſcriptures the ſword of the Lord is thus perſonified and addreſſed: *O thou ſword of the Lord! how long will it be ere thou be quiet? put thyſelf up into thy ſcabbard, reſt and be ſtill!*"

3. Philoctetes in the exceſs of grief and deſpair thus addreſſes the rocks and mountains of Lemnos:

" O *mountains*, *rivers*, *rocks*, and ſavage *herds*

" To

" To you I ſpeak! to you alone, I now
" Muſt breathe my ſorrows! you are wont to hear
" My ſad complaints, and I will tell you all
" That I have ſuffered from Achilles' ſon."

4. King Henry thus apoſtrophizes ſleep:

" O gentle *ſleep*,
" Nature's ſoft nurſe, how have I frighted thee,
" That thou no more wilt weigh my eye-lids down
" And ſteep my ſenſes in forgetfulneſs?
" Wilt thou, upon the high and giddy maſt,
" Seal up the ſhip-boy's eyes and rock his brains
" In cradle of the rude imperious ſurge?
" Canſt thou, O partial *ſleep*, give thy repoſe
" To the wet ſea-boy in an hour ſo rude,
" And in the calmeſt and the ſtilleſt night,
" Deny it to a King." SHAKESPEAR.

5. Adam in his firſt ſurprize after his creation thus apoſtrophizes every thing he ſees:

" Thou *ſun*, fair light,
" And thou enlightened *earth*, ſo freſh and gay,
" Ye *hills* and *dales*, ye *rivers*, *woods* and *plains*,
" And ye that live and move, fair *creatures* tell,
" Tell if ye ſaw, how came I thus, how here?"

MILTON.

6. Adam lamenting his tranſgreſſion apoſtrophizes all the objects around him:

" Why comes not death,
" Said he, with one thrice acceptable ſtroke,
" To end me? ſhall truth fail to keep her word?
" O *woods*, O *fountains*, *hillocks*, *dales* and *bowers*,
" With other echo late I taught your ſhades
" To anſwer, and reſound far other ſong!" MILTON.

7. Eve

7. Eve thus laments her leaving paradiſe:

" Muſt I thus leave thee, *paradiſe!* thus leave
" Thee *native ſoil*, theſe happy walks and ſhades,
" Fit haunt of Gods! where I had hope to ſpend
" Quiet, though ſad, the reſpite of that day,
" Which muſt be mortal to us both. O *flowers*
" That never will in other climate grow!
" Who now ſhall rear you to the ſun, or rank
" Your tribes?"

MILTON.

8. " O *Liberty!* thou goddeſs heavenly bright,
" Profuſe of bliſs, and pregnant with delight!
" Eternal pleaſures in thy preſence reign,
" And ſmiling plenty leads thy wanton train."

ADDISON.

INTERROGATION.

1. Interrogation is a figure, which by aſking a queſtion gives ardor and energy to our diſcourſe.

2. Demoſthenes in his endeavours to rouſe the indolent Athenians againſt the incroachments of Philip King of Macedonia, uſes frequent interrogations: *tell me*, ſays he, *will you ſtill go about, and aſk one another what news? What news can be more aſtoniſhing than that a Macedonian ſhould make war upon the Athenians and regulate the affairs of Greece? Is Philip dead? No, but he is ſick. What ſignifies to you whether he be dead or alive? for if any thing happens to this Philip, you will ſoon raiſe up another.*

3. The ſerpent in his temptation of Eve uſes frequent interrogations:

" Ye ſhall not die:
" How ſhould you? By the fruit? It gives you life

" To

" To knowledge; By the threatener? look on me,
" Me who have touched and taſted, yet both live
" And life more perfect have attained than fate
" Meant me, by venturing higher than my lot.
" Shall that be ſhut to man, which to the beaſt
" Is open? or will God incenſe his ire
" For ſuch a petty treſpaſs?" MILTON.

4. Abdiel thus expoſtulates with Satan:

" Shalt thou give law to God? ſhalt thou diſpute,
" With him the points of liberty, who made,
" Thee what thou art, and formed the powers of heaven?"
MILTON.

5. Fame anſwers by interrogations the requeſt of the virtuous who wiſh to remain in obſcurity:

" Tis all we beg thee, to conceal from ſight
" Thoſe acts of goodneſs, which themſelves requite.
" And live there men, who ſlight immortal fame?
" Who then with incenſe ſhall adore our name?
POPE.

6. Sarpedon thus interrogates Glaucus;

" Why boaſt we, Glaucus, our extended reign
" Where Xanthus' ſtreams enrich the Lycian plain?
" Why on theſe ſhores are we with joy ſurveyed,
" Admired as heroes, and as Gods obeyed,
" Unleſs great acts ſuperior merit prove,
" And vindicate the bounteous powers above?
ILIAD.

EXCLAMATION.

1. An exclamation is a figure that expreſſes ſome ſtrong emotion of the mind, and is generally introduced by an interjection.

2. The

2. The Apoſtle in admiration of the greatneſs of God, exclaims: *O the depth of the riches both of the wiſdom and knowledge of God! how unſearchable are his judgments, and his ways paſt finding out!*

3. The following ſtanza may be conſidered as a ſeries of exclamations:

" The world recedes, it diſappears!
" Heaven opens on my eyes! my ears
" With ſounds ſeraphic ring!
" Lend! lend your wings! I mount! I fly!
" O grave, where is thy victory!
" O death where is thy ſting!" POPE.

4. Samſon when blind and in the power of his enemies thus complains:

" O loſs of ſight! of thee I moſt complain;
" Blind among enemies! O worſe than chains,
" Dungeon, or beggary, or decrepid age!" MILTON.

5. In the following verſes the exclamations upon the future change in Eve's condition are pathetic:

" She to him (Adam) as oft engaged
" To be returned by noon amid the bower,
" And all things in beſt order to invite
" Noon-tide repaſt, or afternoon's repoſe.
" O much deceived, much failing, hapleſs Eve!
" Of thy preſumed return, event perverſe!
" Thou never from that hour in paradiſe,
" Found'ſt either ſweet repaſt or ſound repoſe!"
MILTON.

6. Adam after ſeeing Abel murdered, exclaims:

" Alas, both for the deed and for the cauſe!
" But have I now ſeen death! Is this the way
" I muſt return to native duſt? O ſight

" Of

" Of terror, foul and ugly to behold!
" Horrid to think, how horrible to feel!" MILTON.

7. " The nymph in beauteous grief appears,
" Her eyes half languiſhing, half drowned in tears;
" On her heaved boſom hung her drooping head,
" Which with a ſigh ſhe raiſed; and thus ſhe ſaid:
" For ever curſed be this deteſted day,
" Which ſnatched my beſt, my favourite curl away!
" Happy! ah ten times happy had I been,
" If Hampton-Court theſe eyes had never ſeen!"

AMPLIFICATION.

1. Amplification is a figure that exaggerates the circumſtances of ſome object or action, which we want to place in a ſtrong light. It may be called deſcription.

2. Adam's conſternation, when he heard of Eve's having eaten the forbidden fruit, is thus deſcribed; and his dropping the garland which he was preparing for her is finely imagined:

" On the other ſide, Adam, ſoon as he heard
" The fatal treſpaſs done by Eve, amazed,
" Aſtoniſhed ſtood and blank, while horror chill
" Ran through his veins, and all his joints relaxed:
" From his ſlack hand the garland wreathed for Eve
" Down dropped, and all the faded roſes ſhed:
" Speechleſs he ſtood and pale" —— MILTON.

3. Deſcription of the peacock:

" How rich the peacock! what bright glories run,
" From plume to plume, and vary in the ſun!
" He proudly ſpreads them to the golden ray,
" Gives all his colours, and adorns the day;
" With conſcious ſtate the ſpacious round diſplays,
" And ſlowly moves amid the waving blaze."

4. Time

4. Deſcription of time:

" Time in advance behind him hides his wings,
" And ſeems to creep, decrepid with his age:
" Behold him when paſſed by; what then is ſeen,
" But his broad pinions ſwifter than the wind."

5. Deſcription of the evening and riſing moon:

" Now came ſtill evening on, and twilight grey
" Had in her ſober livery all things clad;
" Silence accompanied, for beaſt and bird
" They to their graſſy couch, theſe to their neſts
" Were ſlunk; all but the wakeful nightingale,
" She all night long her amorous deſcant ſung.
" Silence was pleaſed; now glowed the firmament
" With living ſaphirs; Heſperus, that led
" The ſtarry hoſt, rode brighteſt, till the moon
" Riſing in clouded majeſty, at length
" Apparent Queen unveiled her peerleſs light,
" And o'er the dark her ſilver mantle threw." MILT.

6. Deſcription of the moon:

" As when the moon, refulgent lamp of night,
" O'er heaven's clear azure ſpreads her ſacred light,
" When not a breath diſturbs the deep ſerene,
" And not a cloud o'ercaſts the ſolemn ſcene;
" Around her throne the vivid planets roll,
" And ſtars unnumbered gild the glowing pole;
" O'er the dark trees a yellower verdure ſhed,
" And tip with ſilver every mountain's head.
" Then ſhine the vales, the rocks in proſpect riſe,
" A flood of glory burſts from all the ſkies;
" The conſcious ſwains rejoicing in the ſight,
" Eye the blue vault and bleſs the chearful light." POPE.

FINIS.

MVSEVM BRITAN NICVM